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ABSTRACT

This curriculum guide contains the final version of course outlines for a course taught at Stanford University (1946-1954) reviewing student personnel services in American higher education. The outlines contain not only material to be covered in each session but also references to additional relevant subjects. This collection can be considered a contribution to the history of the development of student personnel thought and action. The course covers 24 topics, including such areas as admissions, health services, relationships between student personnel and others, legal questions, and research. (Author/PC)

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Student Personnel Services in American Higher Education

Spring Quarter, 1954

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FOREWORD

From 1946 to 1954 W. H. Cowley conducted a course at Stanford University reviewing student personnel services in American higher education. To enhance student discussion Professor Cowley distributed in advance of each course session what he called a comprehensive topic outline of the material to be covered. Each topic also included references to relevant subjects not developed in the outline but which would be discussed during class sessions. This collection reproduces the final version of these course outlines written during the Spring of 1954.

Mr. Cowley, early identified with the student personnel movement, is Whilom President of Hamilton College and David Jacks Professor of Higher Education Emeritus at Stanford. He points out that this collection should not be judged as a book without error. Rather it should be considered a contribution to the history of the development of student personnel thought and action. During the 1960's and since, of course, the changes in American higher education have been enormous, but Mr. Cowley's course reviews the evolution of student personnel services into the early 1950's more thoroughly and also more engagingly than any other writer of whom I know.

The course consists of twenty-four topics: Student Personnel Services Defined, History of Student Personnel Services, The Student Personnel Point of View, The American College Student, The American College Professor, The American College Administrator, Student Personnel Workers, Admissions, Appraisal, Counseling, Financial Aids, Health Services, The Extracurriculum, Services Usually Performed by the Institution, Services Usually Performed by Student Groups, Relationships with the Faculty, Relationships with Parents, Relationships with Other Administrative Divisions, Maintenance Services Handled by the Student Personnel Division, Student Personnel Services Administration, Student Personnel Law, Student Personnel Research, Criticisms of Student Personnel Services, and The Future of Student Personnel Services.

Michael Korff

Stanford University
January 1975

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ABBREVIATIONS

AHE	American higher education
ACUs	American colleges and universities
CU	College or university
CUs	Colleges and universities
CyE	Cyclopedia of Education, Paul Monroe editor, 1911
DAB	Dictionary of American Biography
DISS	Dissertation
EB	Encyclopedia Britiannica, 14th edition
ESS	Encyclopedia of the Social Sciences
EncySocSci	- ditto
F	A folder available to students upon application
HE	Higher education
HL	Higher learning
JC	Junior college
JHE	Journal of Higher Education
PBI	W. H. Cowley, The Personnel Bibliographical Index, The Ohio State University, 1932.
PN	A numbered "professional note" in the files of the instructor available for student reading.
PT	A numbered pamphlet similarly available.
SPS	Student personnel services
SPW	Student personnel work
WHC	A numbered folder--usually including correspondence--in the personal files of the course instructor, W. H. Cowley.
WNID	Webster's New International Dictionary of the English Language, 2d ed.

A decimal included in a page reference indicates the fifth of the indicated page where the quotation or cited information may be found. For example, 42.3 refers to the middle of page 42; 42.5 refers to the bottom portion of the page.

Student Personnel Services in American Higher Education

Opening Session: Scope and Procedures of the Course

> Organization is nothing but getting things
> in connection with one another. John Dewey

1. Scope: The title describes the scope of the course, namely, an overview of the services performed for students by American colleges and universities.

   This involves initial attention to the historical roots of such services and also to the reasons for performing them. These background considerations will be discussed in Part One of the Course. The six following divisions review the services performed.

   Because the ground to be covered in the enterprise of giving an overview spreads out so extensively, no attention can be given to techniques employed by personnel workers.

2. The Organization of the Topics to be Discussed: The course consists of seven parts as follows:

   One: Introduction:

      Student Personnel Services Defined
      The History of SPS
      The SPS Point of View

   Two: College and University Personnel Groups: Seven personnel groups are associated with American colleges and universities: (1) students, (2) professorial staff members, (3) administrators, (4) maintenance staff members, (5) student personnel staff members, (6) alumni, and (7) trustees. We can be concerned only with four of these, the four listed below. We are chiefly interested in students; but since what students can do depends in large measure upon members of the staffs of colleges and universities, we must describe the other three groups:

      The American College Student
      The American College Professor
      The American College Administrator
      Student Personnel Workers

   Three: Relations With and Services for Students as Individuals:

      Admissions
      Appraisal
      Counseling
      Financial Aid
      Health Services

   Four: Relations With and Services for Students in Groups:

      The Extracurriculum

Services Usually Performed by the Institution
Services Usually Performed by Student Groups

Five: Other Relationships and Services:

With the Faculty
With Parents
With Other Administrative Divisions
Maintenance Services Performed by the SPS Division

Six: Administration and Research:

Administration
SPS Law
SPS Research

Seven: Criticism and Prognosis

Criticisms of SPS
Directions of SPS

3. Procedures:

3.1 Text: None

3.2 Bibliography: Attached

3.3 Discussion Outlines: For each topic a discussion outline will be distributed at the beginning of each session. I do not believe in random class discussion, and these outlines make it easier to stick to the topic in hand.

3.4 The Reading and Writing of Course Members: SPS literature rolls in on never-ceasing waves, and since producing my 1932 book *The Personnel Bibliographic Index* I've had difficulty keeping up with it. Yet I do distribute a bibliography. I prefer, however, to work out the list of readings of each member of the course in view of his backgrounds and interests. Thus during the next few days I hope to talk individually with each member of the group.

Everyone will be expected to do any one or any combination of the following:

3.41 Read and Digest a Book a Week: Forms for digests will be distributed and discussed today. Since the quarter lasts for ten weeks, each student working for full credit (four units) will do ten digests.

3.42 Write a Long Paper: An occasional student prefers to write a paper, but I encourage this plan only for those students who are majoring in Higher Education and who have had other courses in the field.

3.43 Several Short Papers: Sometimes I'll suggest short papers to various members of the group in terms of their interests. These take the place of digests.

3.44 Research: Some students in the past have enjoyed and found profitable doing small library research jobs for me. I have scores of such jobs waiting to be done and would welcome volunteers for this work.

Each student will be expected to do a minimum of 2-1/2 hours of work each week for each unit of credit. Thus students carrying the course for the usual four units will be expected to do 10 hours of work outside of class over and above the time required for the work described in Item 3.6 below, that is, a total of 100 hours during the quarter.

3.5 The Writing Guide: I make marginal notes on all work submitted to me, and thus students must purchase (for $1.00) the Writing Guide which explains the symbols I use in these marginal notes. I make such notes, incidentally, for two reasons: (1) to show that I've read what students write -- and I read everything -- and (2) to perform what I believe to be a function that every instructor ought to perform, namely, reacting critically to each student's ideas and facts and to his ability to present them effectively.

3.6 Examinations: In addition to the examining involved in the critical reading of digests, I examine in two other ways: (1) through the usual two-hour examination at the end of the course, and (2) through the appraisal of the question-comments of each student on each discussion outline. The latter enterprise operates as follows:

3.61 Submitting Question-Comment Sheets: On an 8-1/2 x 11 sheet each student will raise questions about or make comments upon the topic or topics discussed at the last meeting of the class. These must be submitted at the beginning of the hour and should include a minimum of three questions or comments.

Each sheet should be dated in the upper right-hand corner and bear the name of the writer.

Each comment should refer -- and bear the number of -- a specific item in the topical outline. General comments should be so labeled.

Room should be left after each question-comment for my written reaction because I read, comment upon, and return these sheets.

3.62 The Importance of These Sheets: Good teaching stimulates students to talk, think, and otherwise work on a subject outside of class; and these question-comment sheets do two things: (1) encourage work outside of course on the course material itself and (2) show me where the course needs improvement.

Student Personnel Services in American Higher Education

Part One

Orientation

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Topic One

Student Personnel Services Defined

> If you would converse with me,
> define your terms. Voltaire

Introduction: Student personnel services have been performed in higher educational institutions since their first appearance in the Western World. I shall review this history in a later session. At this session we shall be concerned with trying to define them.

Their name partly defines them: they are (1) services performed by CUs (colleges and universities) for (2) students. But teaching is also a service performed for students, yet teaching does not fall within the boundaries of SPS (student personnel services). Further, some of the services in the SPS sphere of interest aren't services to students at all but, rather, services to the sponsoring institution or services to society at large. For example, recruiting students is essentially an enterprise carried on by a CU so that it will be able to continue in operation at its anticipated budgetary level. A better example is personnel records: a CU keeps student personnel records to facilitate its own work and not as a direct service to students.

And yet both recruiting and record keeping do indirectly serve students. In the process of being recruited by a number of institutions a student acquires information (supplied by the various institutions recruiting him) about which institution he wishes to attend; and students use the records of the Registrar's office for transfer and placement purposes.

The point of the caveat that everything called an SPS isn't primarily a service for students is this: in order to define student personnel work, we need to see it in relationship to all the other functions that CUs perform. We start, then, by outlining the functions of CUs.

1. The Functions of American Higher Education: American CUs are multi-functional institutions. They are referred to commonly as institutions of higher education, but they do a good deal more than educate. They also investigate, that is, undertake the research function. They also do a good many other things that will be listed below. But first some distinctions must be made:

    1.1 Function and Purpose Distinguished: A function is an activity. A purpose is always a planned or hoped for result of the activity. Walking is a function. Why and where one walks are the purpose or purposes of the walking.

    1.2 Function and Structure Distinguished: A function is an activity. A structure is the agency which performs the activity. Recruiting is a function of CUs. The admissions office is the structure which performs it.

    The above distinctions will thread through the listing of functions to be submitted directly for discussion, and for clarity of presentation it will be developed in a continuing analysis which begins with:

1.4 The First Breakdown: The functions of CUs fall into two large categories:

1.41 The Core Functions: These are the reason-for-existence functions. Business corporations exist to produce and distribute goods and/or services, courts to keep order and administer justice, schools to teach.

1.42 The Self-Continuity Services: Many of the activities of CUs -- as of every other social institution -- are carried on for their own internal purposes of self-continuity. Example, building and maintaining buildings, raising money, etc.

1.5 The Breakdown of the Core Functions: These are of two kinds:

1.51 Fundamental: How does a CU differ from a church, a business corporation, an army? It differs because society in setting up divisions of labor has given it certain basic services to perform. These are its reason for being. The raison d'etre services of CUs are two -- only two:

1.511 Education: Both formal and informal and for many types of students other than residential or full-time students.

1.512 Investigation or Research: Clarifying existing knowledge, adding new knowledge.

Both of these services are performed by other institutions too!

1.52 Complementary: Society has assigned other services to CUs because it has proved socially desirable so to assign them. Some CUs, however, do not perform some of them; and any CU could operate without performing any of them. That is why they are called complementary functions.

1.521 The Selective Function: Screening students for various kinds of education (or for elimination from the educational process). Other agencies perform this function (licensing the professions, etc.), but society requires that CUs do most of it. This is, of course, a SPS.

1.522 The Economic Deferment Function: Keeping youths off the labor market. This is also a SPS.

1.523 The Social Criticism Function:

1.524 The Forum Function:

1.525 The Honorific Function:

1.526 The Haven Function: Chiefly for professor but occasionally for students (educands).

1.6 The Breakdown of the Self-Continuity Functions: These are of three kinds:

1.61 The Facilitation Functions: To facilitate is "to make easy or less difficult." In short, the facilitation functions are means for the performance of the public relations functions chiefly but also for the developmental and control functions to be discussed later:

1.611 Functions Facilitating the Work of the Staff:

1.6111 General Material Maintenance: Finances, Plant, Supplies

1.6112 Teaching and Research Maintenance: Books (Libraries and Bookstores), Laboratories, Museums, Specimens, etc.

1.6113 Staff Maintenance and Morale Functions: Recruitment, Working arrangements (loads, assistants), social opportunity (faculty clubs, common rooms, etc.), system of compensation and advancement, other financial assistance such as annuities, pensions, health services, cooperative buying.

1.612 Functions Facilitating the Education of Educands:

1.6121 The Protective Function: Residence, health, food, moral discipline enforcing moral standards.

1.6122 The Recreational Function: All the enterprises that give students social opportunities -- the fun activities. The structures here are numerous and include all student organizations.

1.6123 Financial Aide: Scholarships, loans, part-time work.

1.6124 Counseling: All varieties

1.6125 Placement:

1.6126 Morale Maintenance and Building Functions: Self-government, participation in making institutional policy, etc.

1.613 Record Keeping Functions: Several varieties: educational, counseling, financial, investigational, etc.

1.62 The Developmental Functions:

1.621 Program Development

1.622 Financial Development

1.623 Self-Study

1.63 The Control Function:

1.631 Policy Making

1.632 Policy Adjudication

1.633 Operational Control or Administration

2. Personnel Service for Students Defined: A congeries of services relating to students undertaking to facilitate their education but also to maintain the CUs performing them.

But I prefer the term "clientele" to "student personnel." Discuss why.

3. The Word Personnel: The word means "a body of people." Napoleon or one of his generals seems to have invented it for purposes of logistics and tactics. It came into usage along with or in contrast to materiel.

The word came into the English language during the 19th century, but it continued to be italicized until early in this century when we finally accepted it as an English word.

Because the word personnel is a noun and means a body of people, it must always be qualified by an adjective to indicate what body of people one refers to. Thus in colleges and universities we deal with these personnels: student, faculty, administrative, maintenance staff, alumni, etc.

In this course we are concerned primarily with student personnel; but since students live in close proximity to professors and administrators and are under their direction, we must also give some initial attention to two other personnel groups: professors and administrators.

4. The Term Student Personnel Work: The key word in this often-used phrase is "work," and it's -- in my judgment -- a very weak and unhappy word. We use it because we have not yet agreed upon a better term. It means the services performed for a personnel, for "a body of people." It also means the activities behind the giving of these services: administrative, maintenance, and research services.

I object to the term on these counts: (1) it has no correlative parts of speech -- no verb, no adverb; (2) it's unwieldy; (3) it brings to mind and gets confused with the religious term "personal work"; (4) it means the work done by students.

Altogether it's an unhappy term, and we badly need another name for the enterprise of working with groups of people. But what about the word "guidance"? Let's have a look at it.

5. The Word Guidance: A good many people use this word instead of the term "personnel work." At least this is true in education. Personnel people in government, industry, the military, etc. do not however employ it

much. In place of the term "personnel work," "personnel administration" or "personnel services" are their preferences.

Personally I abhor the word guidance, and for these reasons:

(1) It has undesirable religious connotations, and personnel work does not depend upon religious sanctions.

(2) It implies superiority: a "guider" must know more than the individual being guided. In dealing with college students and with workers in government or industry this seems to me to be an undesirable and even dangerous notion. Frequently the personnel worker does not know more than the person with whom he works. But even if he does, he shouldn't flaunt that fact: it sets up emotional barriers between him and the individual with whom he works.

(3) It has undesirable correlative parts of speech. I have used the word "guider" above, but no one uses it in this connection. Why? Because of its blatant superiority. Nor do many people use the verb to guide. It too has bad connotations. Because of its weak correlatives alone the term guidance should be avoided.

(4) It has been extensively employed by elementary and secondary education, and this makes it prejudicial in higher education. Whether we like it or not, a wide chasm separates the thinking and the emotional conditionings of people in higher education from those in the schools. I for one want to bridge this chasm; but it's there for good historical reasons; and the bridging will take a long, long time. Meanwhile those interested in promoting student personnel services must be about their business of promoting the services, and they must use persuasive terminology with those they seek to convert to their point of view, to wit, professors and administrators. Since these groups in general dislike elementary and secondary school vocabularies, college and university people should avoid them. Red rags annoy bulls, and red-rag words annoy professors and administrators of our colleges and universities -- that is, most of them.

(5) Guidance is a term of the lower schools largely, but secondary and elementary school people, alas, do not agree in what it means. See my article of April, 1936 in the Educational Record entitled, "The Nature of Student Personnel Work," especially Part VI where I review the contradictory meanings of the word among school people. Since these sponsors of the word don't agree about what they mean by it, why should college and university people take it over from them -- along with all their confusions?

(6) Its use in higher education wanes!

(7) It has come to mean work with small children in schools.

In my judgment, these five counts against the word guidance have power enough to rule it out of usage in college and university thinking about student services, but we must give attention to two usages made by college and university people:

(1) Synonymous with Counseling: Counseling students constitutes one of the chief personnel services, and some people use the word guidance as synonymous with the word counseling. We must admit the practise, but that does not mean that we should approve it. In my judgment it's bad for all the reasons listed above. Counseling is an excellent word and has largely replaced the word guidance in higher education. It has good correlatives, and it does not imply superiority. Nor has it religious connotations. Moreover, it can be employed on all educational levels. We must bridge the chasm between lower-school education and higher education, but at this point we must insist that the materials of higher education (the vocabulary of higher education) be employed.

(2) Synonymous with Student Personnel Work: Some writers prefer to make the word synonymous with student personnel work. One such is C. Gilbert Wrenn of the University of Minnesota who wrote me on December 3, 1947 as follows:

> "As far as the use of the word 'counseling' as synonymous with 'guidance' is concerned I do not like the practise at all. It is much better to speak of a guidance program as synonymous with a personnel program."

But he also writes:

> "I am in 100% agreement with you on the use of the word 'guidance.' I do not like it at all, and would be glad to give it up entirely."

My impression is that more and more personnel people agree on the undesirability of the word "guidance" and that it is disappearing from the literature and from practise. In any event, we shall shun it in this course.

One other locution must be discussed, to wit, the phrase "guidance and counseling." What does it mean? I confess that I don't know. It may be a redundancy since some use the two words synonymously. Or it may mean the total personnel program in the Wrenn sense plus particular emphasis upon the function of counseling. If this be the meaning, why the stress on counseling? SPW has many functions besides counseling, and they are all important. Hence why single out counseling for stress in the phrase "guidance and counseling"?

The term's ambiguity suggests that it be avoided. I shall in this course. Incidentally, Mr. Conant in his writings uses the term frequently, but it's still undesirable. In criticizing the mass of his Sachs Lectures for him (at his request) I suggested that he drop the phrase, but he continues to use it in his book Education in a Divided World. It's too bad that his prestige should be employed so unwisely.

6. The Need of a New Term: We badly need a new term for SPW -- and for personnel work in general. One of my students (Burns B. Young) has proposed the term personnelogy. Professor Murray of Harvard ten years ago proposed the term personology. See Explorations in Personality, p. 4.2. I prefer the Murray term, but unfortunately some of the quacks have fastened on to it and have given it a bad name. I'd be much interested in student opinion about (1) whether we need a new term, (2) whether they prefer personnelogy or personology.

But before the discussion begins may I say a few words about the importance of names?

The French psychologist Louisa Duss in 1946 wrote an article on the importance of names to individuals and therein observed a person's name is the nucleus of the self and becomes a conscious symbol of the self. The person who dislikes his name often has psychological difficulties, and Duss reports cases of neurosis and psychosis among people who dislike their names. She observes that such dislike may produce hostile reactions to the world, distorted narcissistic regressions because the superego demands satisfaction of the self with its "name standing as a conscious symbol of the self." In short, an individual who does not like his name is not adequately organized psychologically and runs dangers of neurosis if not psychosis.

As with individuals, so also with groups and with cooperative enterprises. Enterprises really move forward when they get well named, and they seldom do without good names. Consider these examples:

1. Economics: Name not settled until about 1890. It had been called -- during the 19th century -- catallactics, or the science of exchanges; plutology, or the science of wealth; chrematistics, or the science of money making; etc. After decades of struggling for a name, Alfred Marshall came along at the ripe moment and pushed into general usage the word economics because of the greatness of his 1890 book Principles of Economics. See Seligman in Ency. Soc. Sc. 5:345.

2. Home Economics: This field had many names until finally the term home economics came into general use. (Home economics, by the way, was the original Greek meaning of the word economics, a fact which had much to do with the struggle for a name for the major field). One of the first teachers of this subject was Marion Talbot at the University of Chicago beginning in 1893. She had the title of instructor in sanitary science. Of course that wouldn't do, and other attempted names included domestic science, kitchen economy, etc. Home economics has been a settled and recognized field only since its good naming.

3. Degrees for Women: When women began to come into institutions of American higher education, the problem of degrees worried administrators. Women, they held, couldn't easily be called bachelors and masters; and so they invented such titles as Maid of Philosophy, Mistress of Polite Literature, Mistress of Music, etc. The newspapers moved in on them, however, and suggested these titles: Maid of Sewing? Mistress of Pudding Making, etc. The humor forced administrators and faculty members to apply the terms bachelor and

master to women as well as to men. I suggest that the education of women would not have proceeded smoothly had not the problem of degree-naming been handled early and well.

4. The Ph.D. Degree: The graduate school constitutes, in my judgment, the key institution of higher education. We cannot reform college and university teaching until we reform the graduate school, and one of the barriers to such reform is the name of the Ph.D. degree. It has tremendous prestige, and most faculties fight over its retention like fish wives -- but, of course, with politer words. The Ed.D. degree has been proposed as an alternate degree, but it does not have the prestige -- and won't soon acquire it. The man (or woman) who can suggest another degree (or other degrees) to break the grip of the Ph.D. prestige will be doing a tremendous service: it will help make possible the urgently-needed reform of the graduate school.

I might give other examples of the importance of right names, but these must suffice. In summary, in my judgment SPW needs a new name and for at least these reasons: (1) because of the unhappy connotations of the word "work" in the present terminology; (2) because of the confusion with the term "personal work"; (3) because of the absence of good correlative parts of speech; (4) because of the psychological importance of names; and (5) because a field of interest does not really become established until it has been well named.

These observations of great word manipulators seem to me to have bearing upon this discussion:

> "Parliamentary government means etymologically as well as in reality government by talk . . . . A programme is successful when a truth becomes a tag . . . . In the end we are governed by the winning tag . . . . It is the only method ever known of running a free government." Lloyd George.
>
> "Give me the right word and the right accent and I will move the world." Joseph Conrad.

7. The Range of Student Clientele Services: One can categorize any phenomena in many ways. I have struggled with many categories for SPW, but I come out with the following:

    1. Services to Individual Students
    2. Services to Students as Groups
    3. Services to Non-Student Groups
    4. SPS as an Enterprise: Point of View, Administration, Research.

We follow this plan of categorizing in this course.

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Topic Two

History of Student Personnel Services

> The farther you look back, the
> farther you can look forward.
> Winston Churchhill.
>
> But of what use would experience
> be if the future did not resemble
> the past. James McCosh.

Introduction: The Concept of Critical Continuity: In this and all my courses I emphasize history -- but not history for the sake of history or history in the ordinary sense: I am interested in the *history of ideas*.

But what is an idea? I find Josiah Royce's definition the best I've yet run across: an idea is a plan of action. Thus I am interested in historical plans of action for meeting the problems of men.

During the past quarter of a century an increasing number of people have become interested in the history of ideas, and fifteen years or so ago a group of them launched *The Journal of the History of Ideas*. This group is concerned not only with what happened in the past but also with the *plans* of action, the *ideas*, behind the events of the past. The movement seems to me to have two central points of view:

1. *The Notion of Continuity*: Of course all people interested in history accept the notion of continuity. They hold that the present constitutes but a fleeting slice of time projecting from the long and direction-pointing past into the ever-arriving future. But a statistical analogy seems to me to help clinch this conception: think of the present as an additional marking being made currently upon the graph of time. All the past has made its markings, and we add ours on *the continuum* that the past forces upon us and from which we can deviate only alightly. Thus to understand what markings *we are able to make* requires that we understand the directions of the graph we inherit from our forebears.

2. *The Notion of Criticism*: One should not only seek understanding of the plottings of the past upon the graph of time, but he should also appraise these plottings *critically*. Many people -- including not a few historians -- are victims of the past. And one can be a victim in at least two ways: (1) one can be so enamored of the past as to be nothing but an antiquarian living emotionally in former times, or (2) one can be ignorant of the historic continuum and thus forever be its victim. Both dangers must be avoided, and I would particularly stress the second:

   The past prejudices the present. We are able to do only certain things because the graph we inherit from the past stands at such and such a point and veers in such and such a direction. The ignorant man -- that is, ignorant of history -- does what the graph makes him do but doesn't know of the compulsion. Historically illiterate, he egotistically thinks that he does what he does of his own free will. This is ignorance and illiteracy indeed. Only those people can swerve the graph of time by seeing (or feeling) the sweep of the total plotting and by taking the directions that the graph makes possible.

Some poetic souls understand the graph intuitively, but the great majority of us must seek to understand it intellectually. Thus many of the great bringers of change in the world have been ardent studiers of the past. They have discovered the needs and possibilities of the present because they know the directions which the past forces upon today and tomorrow. They know that they can change the present and the future only by taking actions that the events of the past have readied. This generalization, I postulate, holds for all the great changers of history, all the great revolutionaries be they individuals or groups.

My interest in history, therefore, is the interest of an individual concerned with critical continuity. I am interested in the sweep of time from the past into the present and into the future. But I am also interested in the ideas involved in this sweep, in the plans of action which have failed, succeeded, or remained dormant.

To stress critical continuity is, clearly, to emphasize the fact that primarily I am not interested in the past at all but primarily in the future. What does the future hold in store? One cannot tell for sure, but by understanding the continuum, by scrutinizing it critically, one may get some rather pointed hunches about what the future will bring.

This is the spirit, then, in which we look at the history of student personnel work.

1. The Overall History of the Higher Education and the Higher Learning: In my course, "The American College and University" I point out that it's erroneous to believe that the higher education and the higher learning began in the medieval world. I there trace the history of institutions of higher education and higher learning back to the founding of Plato's Academy in 387 B.C., and I follow the almost unbroken continuum of higher educational institutions from then until the present. I divided these 23-1/2 centuries of history into these nine periods, some of which overlap:

1.	The Hellenic: 387BC -- 529AD	918 years
2.	The Hellenistic: 306BC-642AD	942 years
3.	The Roman: 27BC -- 476AD	503 years
4.	The Byzantine: 330AD -- 1453AD	874 years
5.	The Latin: 476AD -- 1517AD	1,040 years
6.	The Arabian: 622AD -- 1492AD	870 years
7.	Rationalistics-Dialectic European: 1100 -- 1530	430 years
8.	Rationalistic-Literary European: 1530 -- 1776	246 years
9.	Empirical Universal: 1776 --	

We cannot trace SPW in all these nine periods, and so we shall concentrate on three of them: (1) the Hellenic, (2) the Rationalistic European, and (3) the Present -- the Empirical Period.

2. SPW in Hellenic Institutions: A good deal of work needs to be done on the SPW of this period. Abundant data is at hand, but so far as I know no one has organized it from the point of view of SPW. But here are a few gleanings:

2.1 The Ephebic College: The head, called the Cosmetes, gave considerable thought to what we would today call SPW. But he had the assistance of a designated personnel officer called the Sophronista, that is, proctor, who held responsibility for the moral welfare of the students. See W.W. Capes, University Life in Ancient Athens, 1877, pp. 17-19. Also see other books by Walden et al.

2.2 The Four Schools of Philosophy: The schools founded by Plato, Aristotle, Epicrus, and Zeno the Stoic all continued until Justinian closed them in 529AD, and we know a good deal about their arrangements. Here are some of the personnel considerations in these schools:

2.21 The Student Personnel: Young adults of both sexes, but men chiefly. Yet at Epicurus's school coeducation seems to have been practised at least during its early years. These were resident students, but other students came in for what Aristotle called his exoteric lectures (that is, what I call democentric lectures in contrast with esoteric or practicentric lectures which were in my terminology usually logocentric but occasionally practicentric) The same is apparently true for Plato and the others.

2.22 Entrance Requirements: Plato, at least, had them for the Academy. Over one of the portals of the Academy read this legend: "Let No One Enter Here Who Has Not Mastered Geometry."

2.23 Residence: Common for many students and, of course, for all students not from Athens. Cite the great school of Isocrates which did not continue after his death but to which came the sons of the tyrants of the Grecian world. Cicero likened Isocrates' school to a Trojan horse from which emerged only the sons of princes. Also cite Pythagoras's houses.

2.24 Fees: Plato's Academy, and perhaps the others, had endowments; and later the Byzantine Empire took over the four schools as state institutions. In any event, fees were charged from early days. They were of two kinds: those to the institution and those to professors. Each professor had his student agents or runners who hunted out incoming freshmen and then attempted to work with the professors they represented. For this they got commissioned. Review the history of the name professor from the Greek word epangelma (advertisement) to profiteri to professores in the Latin.

2.25 Part-Time Employment: Apparently goes back at least to the third century before Christ since Cleanthes, chief disciple of Zeno, earned his way at the Academy.

2.26 *Student Life*: A good deal of data here which needs collating. In Ancient Greece, as always, students have behaved as students. In particular, recall Plato's dialogue, the *Symposium*, on the virtues and even the desirability of alcohol for intellectual stimulation. Indeed, *symposium* means a drinking party at which good talk ensues.

I have perhaps reviewed enough of the facts here to demonstrate that SPW had an important place in the four schools of philosophy of Ancient Greece.

3. *SPW in the European Universities of the Rationalistic Period*: Let me define terms. By *rationalistic* I mean the arrangement or organization of knowledge by critical reasoning alone, that is, without verifying it by observation and experimentation. It must be contrasted with *empirical*, that is, knowledge based on observation and experimentation.

European universities arose (largely under Arabian stimulation) about the year 1100. Cite Salerno Bologna, Paris, Oxford. They were all essentially rationalistic -- and in the *dialectical* sense. Plato coined the word *dialectic* to mean the method of arriving at truth through debate and logical analysis. The original European universities were all dialectic-rationalistic.

In the 17th century under the stimulation of Capernicus, Kepler, and especially of Descartes, the universities added another kind of rationalism -- mathematical rationalism: instead of the symbols of words, they dealt in the symbols of mathematics. But they continued to be rationalistic. Empiricism also came into wide usage again during this same period under the leadership of Galileo, Bacon, Harvey, et al; but it did not get accepted in the universities for a long time to come -- not until the late 18th century in Germany and Scotland and not until the late 19th century in England and the United States.

Thus we are here concerned with the SPW of the rationalistic universities.

3.1 *The Student Personnel*:

3.11 *Age*: 13 to 45. It took 16 years to get a doctorate in divinity at Paris, and thus students were around a long time. Much erroneous history here since most writers assume that all students were mere boys.

3.12 *Sex*: Men almost entirely, but Bologna is said to have been coeducational early.

3.13 *Source*: From all countries of Europe, and thus each university organized itself into nations. Each nation had its own officers. All spoke Latin of course, but among themselves they also talked their vernaculat languages.

3.2 *Entrance Requirements*: I can't find that any existed, but I confess that I've not looked thoroughly. Probably some existed especially the requirement that the subject of the Trivium (grammar, logic, and rhetoric) be passed before admission.

3.3 Residence: None at first made available by the academic authorities, but this soon changed. Lodging and food at first furnished by townspeople and then by donors who sought to aid indigent students. See my 1934 article in the bibliography, "The History of Student Residential Housing."

3.4 Fees: Much controversy here. See papers (#20) by Rasmus and Swenson. In theory the Church held that all education should be gratis. So also did the State, and the universities which primarily were political institutions although often granted papal charters for the purposes of degree accreditation. In fact students paid fees usually -- sometimes to the institution and almost always to the professor. The tradition of the Greek epangelma, by the way, continued even in the United States until 1870 in professional education: Harvard Medical School professors collected fees directly from students until President Eliot banned the practise in 1870.

3.5 Part-Time Employment: Jobs available in the buttery, etc.

3.6 Financial Aid: Student residences (hostels, colleges, etc.) were originally conceived as financial aids to students. In addition, money grants were soon provided and known as prebendaries, exhibitions, and only lately as scholarships. The conception of endowment for aid to students is very old.

3.7 Student Life: Abundant, rollicking, often bloody. Fights between town and gown. Much literature here! The word philistine=outsider.

3.8 Discipline: The conception of academic self-government: each institution is own courts and jails independent of the civil authorities. These continued in Europe well into the 19th century.

3.9 Student Personnel Officers: Not a few with various titles:

3.91 The Dean: From the Roman army: a leader of ten. Became both an ecclesiastical and academic term in the Middle Ages.

3.92 Proctor: Originally meant pro-rector, serving for the director, the head. Became disciplinary officers. Are still such at Oxford and Cambridge; and at Harvard they are resident assistants in dormitories and college houses.

3.93 Beadle: A subordinate disciplinary officer working under the proctor. Still at work at Oxford and called bull-dogs by the students.

3.94 Bursar: A financial officer, but he often banked student funds. Cite the training in letter-writing in the Middle Ages to help students write home for money.

3.95 Patron: Another and perhaps more common name for the custodian of student funds. Money controlled by the patron. This office continued at Harvard until the 19th century.

3.96 Regent: The name for any graduate of a university -- with an M.A. degree. Regent-Masters headed the colleges and were chiefly personnel officers responsible for good conduct in the houses.

A good deal of work needs to be done on the history of SPW in the medieval universities. It would throw considerable light upon present practises; and, just as important, it would counteract the abounding opinion that personnel work is an academic upstart. Of course it isn't in the interests of SPW to be so considered, and so those who do this research and writing would be performing services of high importance to the stability, respectability, and progress of SPW. I can't too vigorously encourage students to become interested -- and perhaps to work -- in this terrain.

4. The Old American College: The Old American College (and here I mean the college as it flourished and dominated American education until about 1870) was a rationalistic institution in many ways comparable to the medieval university. But it had two additional curricular elements of great importance: (1) mathematic representing the stratum added to institutions of higher education by the mathematical rationalists, and (2) literary rationalism representing the stratum added by the literary humanists who returned to Greece and Rome for their literary and spiritual models.

Thus the Old American College constituted an amalgam of three elements: (1) dialectical rationalism, (2) mathematical rationalism, and (3) literary rationalism. But it had another element coming from the Reformation but not becoming important until the early 19th century; straight-laced Puritanism. Of this last element I must say a little here to illuminate what people chiefly remember about the Old College and to prepare the ground for the switch to the modern college and to present day SPW.

4.1 Interest in Soul-Saving: The Roman Catholic medieval university had this of course, but it had become institutionalized in established ritualistic patterns especially around the sacraments of confirmation and auricular confession. The Reformation retained confirmation in the Lutheran and Anglican branches but not in the Calvinistic and in the later-established evangelical branches. Thus the sects which had little institutionalization of their soul-saving work had to set up other methods of soul-saving. They employed two chief devices: (1) the revival meeting, and (2) professorial snooping.

4.11 The Revival Meeting: Not prominent in the 17th century but then we had but one college -- Harvard. Very important in the 18th century under the leadership of George Whitfield, one of the greatest evangelists ever to plead for salvation. Review the Great Awakening and the founding of Princeton and Dartmouth as a result, etc. Review the waning of religion from 1760 to 1802 in the United States.

After the national return to religion beginning in 1802 (the date of the first important new revival meeting at Yale) came The Second Awakening. This led to the founding of many colleges especially in the Middle West. Here the not-very-well educated Methodists and Baptists took over.

The revival meeting continued however, to have great power in the Eastern colleges. It lasted at Amherst and Princeton, for example, until well after the Civil War. It disappeared for a number of reasons including (1) debauches usually followed, (2) the nation became largely secular, and (3) German impersonalism dominated the colleges.

4.12 Snooping Professors: Remember, before the Civil War most -- indeed, the great majority -- of professors were clergymen, and they considered the student's soul to be even more important than his mind. Students between revivals often indulged in considerable hell-raising morally and socially and even blew up college buildings with gunpowder in protest against the educational practises and against the boredom they encountered. Thus professors apparently believed that the Devil stoked a row of especially hot fires for college students; and, believing this, they sought valiantly to save them from the clutches of Beelzebub. This made them expert sniffers of sin, heavy-fisted agents of Jehovah's wrath, and zealous guides to repentance and redemption.

Faculty members had dormitory beats which they had to police seeking sin and rooting it out either by prayer with the delinquents or bringing them to justice. As one historian reports, the professor was expected to be a detective, a juryman, a prosecuting attorney, and a judge of student behavior. Recall the faculty meetings at which they "read the catalogue" and "Old Greek" at Hamilton who suggested that his epitaph read, "Died of Faculty Meetings."

4.2 The Coming of the Straight-Laced Puritans: The Anglicans, of course, had little use for the revival meetings, and they did not snoop much, if at all. An Episcopalian usually considers these practises beneath his dignity -- ungentlemanly. To him God is first of all a gentleman, and it's unseeming, undignified to get excited about soul-saving. The Unitarians have much the same idea although from a different philosophical and theological base. But the Calvinists whooped it up in revivals and snooped almost by nature. In time, however, they toned down and moved in the direction of the Episcopalians, the Unitarians, and the Roman Catholics in either institutionalizing soul saving or in more or less ignoring it.

But the new evangelicals -- the Baptists, the Methodists, and the other battening sects of the 19th century -- brought a return to ascetic morality and therefore to soul-saving and to snooping professors. In particular they abhorred liquor, and tobacco, and card playing, and dancing, and the pleasures of the flesh in general. In short, they were ascetics and brought their ascetic philosophy into their colleges.

Now the New England Calvinists had been somewhat ascetic but not seriously so. They all drank whiskey, and many made fortunes in the rum trade. They all, including their women, smoked. They liked good looking women; and since they knew nothing about birth control and since obstetrics continued to be hazardous, they usually had two or three successive wives. They had a high moral sense of duty, but they installed every new preacher with a three-day drinking party, and the Harvard Commencement until about 1830 was a baccanal of wine and song and perhaps some dalliance. And, remember, many Harvard alumni were preachers.

Then came the evangelical push toward asceticism from John Wesley and others. I've not run down the reasons for this emphasis -- this return -- to asceticism, but clearly it happened. Thus in 1824 the temperance (but, note, not the prohibition) movement got under way; and the clergy of New England took oaths not to get drunk except that they demanded freedom to drink hard on four days a year: Christmas, election day, sheep-shearing day, and muster day. This led to greater asceticism, and then along came the prohibition movement, etc.

Meanwhile the Methodists, Baptists, and other evangelicals went to great ascetic extremes. They banned everything that gave fleshly pleasure, and of course, they tried to control students according to their lights about the nature of human goodness.

4.3 SPW in the Old American College Essentially Soul-Saving: I have given as much time as this to the personnel practises of the Old American College because the SPW movement has had a huge job in living down this evangelical-ascetic-soul-saving background. American life became predominantly secular, and professors and the public in general have revolted against the religious paternalism of the past. Thus SP workers have had to live down the historical backgrounds of their enterprise. This has not been easy. Indeed, to most professors the personnel worker is suspect; and an important though perhaps hidden reason is this paternalistic background.

Here, of course, we have an excellent illustration of the importance of the continuum. Do I need to press the point that the continuum influences the present -- that the present is part of the past and as such fits on the continuum? The conception of critical continuity seems to me to apply here pointedly.

5. The Transition From the Old American College to the Present: These practises of the past seem remote to most present-day personnel people, and in a sense they are. The reason is that we have gone through a period of transition from the Old College and its methods to the present practises of colleges and universities. In short, the continuum took a radical shift in direction. We must therefore identify the forces that made this shift. We do that in this section of the lecture.

5.1 Secularization of Modern Life: The roots of this go back a long, long way; and these can be better understood by a definition and by dividing secularization into its two majorparts:

5.11 Definition: This-worldliness! The opposite of the point of view that this life is predominantly preparation for the next life. Religion need not be other-worldly, and often it hasn't been: Confuciusianism, Communism, are religions in the sense that they give the values of life for large groups of people. But religion to most people means next-worldliness. Secularism is agnostic about the next world. It requires that all sanctions be those of this life. Yet it does not oppose those who want or need next-worldly sanctions. It is tolerant of them although organized religion is not usually tolerant of them.

5.12 The Moral Position of Secularism: Morals are controlled by this-worldly facts and not by the next-world. Morals and social-life coexistent. Moral relatively rather than absolute moral law. The extreme is latitudinarianism, and this is dangerous. The desirable mode is social responsibility.

5.13 The Political Position of Secularism: Society should be operated by this-worldly considerations, and next-worldly factors must be elements. Thus organized religion has no place in government. Here the long history! Secularism broke out in the Roman Catholic Church in the Middle Ages especially in the Concilar Movement, but the Papacy succeeded in suppressing it. The Reformation brought the Concilar Movement to reality in a good part of the world. The French Revolution pushed the movement further when the clergy were no longer represented as a group in government. Also, the British Parliament forbade the seating of any clergyman in its chambers -- as a member.

The biggest secular-political development came in the United States with the separation of Church and State. Jefferson the leader here: his Virginia bill of 1787.

A big push to defeat political secularism today, but the Supreme Court decision in 1948 in the McCollum case holds the fort much to the displeasure of the Roman Catholic hierarchy. A big struggle in the offing here.

These moral and political developments, of course, effected education, and educational institutions have become largely secular -- even the church-connected colleges other than the 275 Roman Catholic institutions. Also we now have some 475 institutions that are both free of the State and religious control. I call them Alodial institutions.

5.2 The Rise of Science: Need I develop this? I mean, of course, empirical science. Revived in the 17th century. Came to the universities much later. When it came, it pushed everything before it.

5.3 Rise of Machine Technology: At first separate from the scientific movement. Its great men, Watt, Stephenson, Edison, et al. Science and technology joined in the last part of the 19th century. Greatly influenced the mass movement into education: we needed trained workers to man the new technological, power machines.

5.4 The Mass Movement Into Education: Came about for at least three reasons: (1) technological developments, (2) political freedom for the masses of men, and (3) the humanitarian movement. The swell began in 1870.

5.5 The Humanitarian Movement: The moral branch of secularism. Improve the institutions of this world rather than worry about the nature of the next world. This the humanitarian credo. Rousseau a prominent leader here, but no less important are Locke, Lord Shaftsbury, Lord Herbert, and especially the Unitarians in general.

These five movements all conjoined to secularize and change and even revolutionize American education on all levels. They brought the end of religio-centric paternalism and brought the modern period.

We shall examine the modern period in the next lecture. It has its serious deficiencies, of course. We shall have a look at them. The point of this lecture has been to set up the critical continuum with which to seek fuller comprehension of the present and to help forecast the future.

Topic Three

The Student Personnel Point of View

> Philosophy is an attempt to express the infinity of the universe in terms of the limitations of language. Alfred North Whitehead.
>
> And this effort to make our desires, our striving and our ideals . . . articulate, to define them . . . in terms of inquiry into conditions and consequences is what I have called criticism and, when carried on in the grand manner, philosophy. John Dewey,

Introduction: The title of this lecture comes from the title of a brochure published in 1937 and produced by a group of personnel people meeting under the auspices of the American Council on Education. This group sought to bring together on common ground divergent groups of student personnel workers and divergent points of view.

The expression "the student personnel point of view" is a euphemism for the word philosophy. It isn't such a high-hat term as philosophy, and that helps to improve its usefulness. Call it what one will, student personnel philosophy seems to me to have three major stresses: (1) emphasis on the individual student, (2) measurement, and (3) interest in student group life. In this lecture we shall look at each of these major conceptions.

1. Emphasis on the Individual Student:

1.1 History: Medieval university students originally shifted for themselves. In time, however, they organized themselves into residential groups under their own self-government in what came to be called "colleges," "nations," etc. The nations disappeared along with student rectors and other officers of student self-government; but the colleges continued until the 16th century in Germany, the late 18th century in France, and until the present day in Oxford and Cambridge. Meanwhile faculty personnel officers began to be appointed with the titles described in the last lecture: deans, proctors, etc. See my 1934 article on student residential housing cited in the bibliography.

1.11 English Paternalism: The Continental institutions in time lost all interest in students as individuals, but the two English universities became paternal institutions. To this day their students must be within their walls by 11 PM. Taverns in town are banned to them, and the proctor and his beadles visit them to look for students breaking the rules. The fining system is still in effect.

1.12 American Paternalism Until the Civil War: American colleges were all paternalistic in the English tradition until the Civil War. Indeed, because of Puritanism New England colleges were even stricter than their English prototypes. The clergy ruled, and they were all bent on soul-saving. In some unpublished writing that I've done on this topic appears the following statement:

> "Colleges had an official interest in the souls of their students, and faculty members were constantly on the alert as professional soul-savers. During this period in our American education, college students got plenty of personal attention -- indeed, much too much. Since most of the clergymen-professors apparently believed that the Devil stoked a row of especially hot fires for undergraduates, they were expert sniffers of sin, heavy-fisted agents of Jehovah's wrath, and zestful guides to repentance and redemption. The famous log of Mark Hopkins' was in reality a sinner's bench, and he prayed with his students more than he talked with them. Unmistakably students got plenty of counseling in those days because, as the historian of Dartmouth puts it, faculty members took their counseling responsibilities seriously and willingly acted as detectives and judges as well as chaplains for the suspected and the condemned."

1.13 The Secularization of American Life and of American Education: All the great events of 1776 led to secularization, to the reduction of religious influences, to the minimizing of clerical power. In particular, Jefferson's bill for religious freedom prepared the way for publicly supported education and for the coming of laymen into education. Discuss here: (1) the Great Awakening before the Revolution, (2) the Deistic and Unitarian movements, (3) the Second Awakening beginning about 1802, and (4) the maturation of the secularizing forces about the time of the Civil War. All of these were important, but in particular stress the infiltration of German educational ideas and ideals.

1.14 The German Infiltration: Review rapidly the extraordinary history of German education after 1648 stressing the opening of the University of Berlin in 1810 under the impetus of Fichte's fourteen powerful addresses in the winter of 1807-1808. Emphasize German intellectualism and therefore German impersonalism. Cite the 10,000 Americans taking German Ph.D.s from the first taken in 1815 by William Backhouse Astor at Göttengen in 1815 to the breaking out of war in 1914. Point to the drive toward the German educational philosophy beginning with Ticknor at Harvard in 1823 and lasting well into the 20th century -- even until now.

1.15 The Conflict Between English Antecedents and German Infiltration: American education opened under English (and some Scotch) influences stressing residence and personal interest in students. This continued for two centuries, and then the German infiltration came in accenting intellectualism and impersonalism. But the personalism of the old-line colleges continued to stress religion. The secularizing forces of the 19th century cut into the hold of religion upon education;

and with its religious sponsorship under fire, personalism suffered seriously. In short, the impersonalism of the German universities made rapid headway because of the repudiation of religious control of education. Thus all personal interest in students forced on the defensive. Cite the conflict between Harvard and Yale as illustrative.

1.16 Student Reactions to Religious Personalism: Students didn't like the soul-saving activities of professors, and they reacted by rioting and rebelling frequently. A fascinating book could be written here -- and one of high value because we shall probably have riots and rebellions in the future when students (the 3,000,000 of them predicted in 1960) discover that their economic opportunities won't be as good as advertised. In any event students blew up buildings, stabbed townspeople to death, generally harrassed the faculty.

1.17 Student Reactions to Impersonalism: Faculty members went in whole hog for research and scholarship and ignored students. They responded by organizing the extra-curriculum which began to emerge in the 1850's. First intercollegiate athletic event: the Harvard-Yale boat race Winnepesaukee in 1853 with Charles W. Eliot in the Harvard shell wearing a magenta bandanna from whence developed crimson as Harvard's color. After the Civil War extra-curricular activities boomed in all directions. The impersonalism of faculty members stimulated the development as did also the establishment of methods of giving students elective choices among the courses offered by the colleges. Thus students had little in common intellectually anymore, and they achieved commonality around the activities of student life rather than around the intellectual enterprise as they had under the fixed curriculum.

1.18 The 1900 Reaction Against Impersonalism: Yale in particular remained staunch to the traditions of personal interest in students under the influence of Noah Porter. When even Yale became secular his second successor, Arthur T. Hadley, came out vigorously for the values of "Yale life," that is, for the democracy of extra-curricular activities. See his 1896 book. Also see H.S. Canby's book of 1936, Alma Mater. By 1900 much dissatisfaction with impersonalism. Cite the Boston Transcript articles of 1902 written by Dean L.R. Briggs of Harvard insisting that large institutions could be as personalistic as small colleges. See also the Briggs report of 1902-03 demonstrating at Harvard that students loafed through college. See also W.R. Harper's paper, reprinted in Trend in Higher Education, 1905, deploring the ignoring of the intellectual life by Eastern college students. In particular the protest against impersonalism and extra-curricular activities resulted in:

1.181 Wilson's Princeton Program: Woodrow Wilson deplored both German intellectualism and impersonalism and the extra-curricular "side-shows." To counteract them he developed the preceptorial system (a clearly English-modelled plan), and the "quadrangle plan," for housing students. He succeeded with the first but failed badly with the second. See Ray Stannard Baker's book on Wilson's Princeton years.

1.182 Lowell's Harvard Program: Cite his 1909 inaugural in which he repudiated impersonalism and, referring to Aristotle, approved the college student as a "social animal." He then proceeded to personalize Harvard life and, at the same time, to improve its intellectual enterprise. Thus he proceeded to develop: (1) freshman housing, (2) comprehensive examinations, (3) the tutorial plan, (4) a complete reorganization of housing with Harkness money, and (5) honors work.

1.183 Slosson's 1910 Book: In 1909 the weekly magazine, The Independent, commissioned E.E. Slosson, a Ph.D. in chemistry and a notable popularizer of science, to visit fourteen leading American universities and to report on their activities and points of view. His articles appeared serially and later came to the public in an important volume entitled Great American Universities. Read it, it's still very interesting. Slosson made many criticisms including a severe criticism of impersonalism: "college is a telephone line working only one way."

1.184 The Appointment of Student Deans: I mean, the appointment of deans of students -- of men and of women. This had begun in the late 19th century. Harvard 1890 a strategic date. Dean L.B.R. Briggs was the first dean of students. The women's colleges and coeducational institutions very importance since parents required more personal attention and "moral protection" for their daughters than for their sons. But all institutions saw the need of appointing deans to counsel students as individuals and to overseer the booming extra-curricular activities.

1.19 The Rise of the Measurement Movement: I've given so much attention to the four items just above because of the far-flung belief that the student personnel movement grew up with the testing movement. This just isn't so! The testing movement brought tools for analyzing students as individuals and groups but the urge to personalize education had been flourishing for at least two decades when the entry of the U.S. into the European War in 1917 focused the energies of psychologists upon testing of many varieties. I shall later explore the history of testing, but here I want to clinch the point that the measurement people came upon the scene after humanitarians in the persons and deans of men and deans of women -- and of such eminent leaders as Wilson and Lowell.

1.2 The Current Situation: I've spent so much time on the history of personalism and impersonalism because of its huge importance and also because of the wide-spread myth that modern student personnel work came in with measurement. We can never understand the powers pushing and sustaining student personnel work without seeing from when they came, how old they are, how deep their roots. But now we must have a look at the current situation.

1.21 The Return to the Residential Emphasis: I discuss this first because the possibility of emphasizing the individual student depends upon having him about so that he can be given personal attention. All during the 19th century residential college life condemned by most leading educators; from Wayland to Eliot. Harper brought the beginnings of revived interest, and in time even Michigan fell in line. Now most educators agree in theory that residence upon the campus is desirable, but they balk at the cost of it. Yet the state universities twenty years ago began to meet the need through privately floated bond issues for dormitories, and now the State of California is financing dormitories from public funds. This revolutionary! Issues here:

1.211 Is Residence Educational: The traditional argument here is that dormitories are not educational buildings and that therefore the State should not finance their building. But the State of California is repudiating this argument. The issue swings on whether one espouses intellectualism or a broader conception of education. The importance of Hutchins' here -- although he has quietly reneged on intellectualism.

1.212 The Junior Colleges: Should they house their students? They live in the immediate community, and they can live at home cheaply. But do they get complete educational opportunities. Cite the recent article in the Saturday Evening Post of 4-26-47 about C.C.N.Y. and the article about junior college housing by Ordway Tead soon to be published -- the 1947 English Lecture PN F-362-5. On the other hand, cite Conant's Sachs' Lectures and other statements that dormitories are "needless expense."

1.213 FDR and Compulsory Military Training: Part of his advocacy of this highly controversial program came from his interest in all American youths having a common life together: boys from Groton and the East Side.

1.214 A Possible Solution: Inexpensive barrack-like residences like the Tower Club of Ohio State. If educators believe residential life educationally important, they will find a way. But many still don't consider it important. For my part it's essential.

1.22 The Mental Hygiene Emphasis: This a development during the past thirty years -- and very important. The testing movement has been vastly important, but it has not been as helpful as anticipated: it gives central tendencies of groups of students, but it does not give adequate assistance in the counseling of individual students. And many of these need great help because of neurotic and even psychotic tendencies. Meanwhile all students have need of help in meeting their intense problems. Thus the rise of mental hygiene for the extreme cases and of clinical counseling for all -- at least theoretically for all.

1.23 The Development of Counseling: Perhaps the major current emphasis in SPW is on counseling. We know now that everyone has many, many problems and that those of adolescents are especially complex and strategic. And we have developed many skills and insights to aid counselors. These we shall discuss in the lecture devoted to counseling.

2. Measurement in SPW: This constitutes the second major ingredient of SPW, and we must trace its rise and present-day activities:

2.1 Sources: Measurement in SPW developed naturally as a result of the scientific movement in general. Some of the high spots in the rise and growth of measurement in psychology need review here:

2.11 Binet's Work in France: Alfred Binet (1857-1911), like Freud, began his work in hypnotism, and his first two books were about hypnotism. Recall the furor in France a century earlier stirred up by Mesmer and the slow acceptance of hypnotic phenomena as scientific. Binet dropped his interest in hypnotism in time, and -- with Simon -- he gave his greatest attention in his last years to researches in the nature and measurement of human intelligence. In the first decade of this century his tests and scales appeared. Their importance is common knowledge.

2.12 Wundt's Work at Leipzig: Wilhelm Wundt (1832-1920) established the world's first psychological laboratory at Leipsig, developed experimental (physiologically) psychology, and attracted many important American psychologists to his lab. Wundt also a social psychologist and philosopher interested in ethics. But his American students were chiefly interested in his physiological psychology. He stressed measurement, but intelligence testing came to the USA from France and not Germany.

2.13 Cattell's Work at Penn and Columbia: James McKeen Cattell (1860-1944) served as Wundt's assistant for three years and returned in 1889 to become the first man in the world to have the title of Professor of Psychology. (Recall G.S. Hall at Antioch and Johns Hopkins). This title given to Cattell by the University of Pennsylvania where he worked 1889-91 before going to Columbia to establish a laboratory.

Cattell worked primarily in physiological measurements and did the first work in this country on the measurement of individual differences among students in visual acuity, tactile sensitivity, etc. But we did not follow the Cattell path. Rather we followed the Binet path which Terman opened up for the United States.

Terman a student of G.S. Hall at Clark where he took his Ph.D. in 1905. Terman's work on the IQ. Followed by the work of Thurstone, Toops, Brigham, and scores of others. Terman goes on to work on the nature of genius. Continuation of Binet's and Galton's interests.

2.14 Briggs and Lowell at Harvard: Respectively Dean of Harvard College and President of Harvard University. Their work generally overlooked by personnel people, though it's of great importance. As far as I can discover it's the first work in group measurement. It's so significant that we must review it briefly:

2.141 The Briggs' Committee 1902-03: In the Spring of 1902 the Harvard Faculty of Arts and Sciences appointed a Committee on Improving Instruction made up of nine men under the chairmanship of Dean LeBaron Russel Briggs. This committee broke precedents by trying to get the facts about their problem. The report is published in full in Birdseye's Individual Training in Our Colleges, 1907, pp. 397-407. This an important landmark in educational research.

College presidents had earlier sought the facts in attempting to meet their educational problems; but as far as I know, no faculty committee did research before the Briggs Committee. Cite in particular the researches of (1) Wayland of Brown 1842 and 1850, (2) Barnard of Columbia especially in the 1860's, (3) Eliot in his annual reports from 1869 to 1909.

2.142 Lowell's Researches on Student Scholarship: Among the nine members of the Briggs Committee sat A. Lawrence Lowell, Boston Brahmin and professor of political science. In 1909 he succeeded Eliot at President of Harvard, and because of his experience on the Briggs Committee he began by an investigation of student scholarship. He sought to break the "C Grade Tradition," and he did. See his "College Studies and the Professional School" in the Educational Review for October, 1911, pp. 217-33.

2.15 The First World War: The work of 25 years of studying individual differences among college students and school children came to fruition in the psychological heydey produced by the First World War. Psychologists swarmed to Washington and to the Army camps. Three chief developments: (1) the intelligence test, (2) aptitude tests for manual skills leading to a general development of aptitude testing, and (3) attempts to measure non-intellectual personality differences through such devices as the rating scale. Work of Scott, Bingham, Strong.

2.16 The Postwar Boom in Personnel Testing: Many personnel programs immediately initiated. Of particular importance at the time were those at Dartmouth under Husband and at Northwestern under L.B. Hopkins. But in perspective the most important development came at Minnesota which in 1922 initiated its testing program under D.G. Paterson. During this period the intelligence testing movement also became thoroughly established with Thorndike, Thurstone, and Toops dominating the college field.

2.2 Types of Measurement: Many varieties, but to me the most important seem to me:

2.21 Group Testing: Attempts to find central tendencies and ranges among various groups. For our purposes, the essential group is the college student population. It should be emphasized that group testing has developed for two very different reasons: (1) to give psychologists data from which to draw generalizations concerning the nature of intelligence, and (2) to help counselors work with individual students. Thurstone stresses the first reason almost exclusively. Paterson and Williamson et al at Minnesota have emphasized the latter. Here an example of pure science (the Higher Learning) and applied science emphases.

2.22 Individual Differences: The counselor works with an individual student, and thus he must be interested primarily in his individual differences. But he must depend upon tests which have resulted from group testing which gives the norms. This translation often is difficult because of "the bane of averages." The counselor must be "an instrument of sensitivity" in interpreting test results. He succeeds to the degree that he sees and understands the student as an individual through the maze of test results.

2.23 Situational Measurement: Individuals not involved as such here. Example, the Briggs Committee studies. Also the Lowell study of Harvard scholarship. Cite also my study of admissions at Hamilton. Much of this going on in all segments of student personnel work, but we have need of more and better such research.

2.3 Pros and Cons of Measurement:

2.31 Pros: Get the facts: Facts reveal the nature of the problem.

2.32 Cons: Danger of isolated facts (factualism) ungeneralized, unrelated to one another and to the total situation. Also the bane of averages. Also the danger that the student will be considered only a "datum" without life.

Most important of all in "situational measurement," facts of limited utility. People aren't convinced by facts against their established, deeply-rooted attitudes. Cite the faculty of Hamilton and my studies. The need of rhetorical skill. "Teach a man against his will and he's of the same opinion still."

3. Student Group Life: Relatively little has been done with this third ingredient of the "student personnel point of view." This essentially educational sociology rather than educational psychology. I came into the problem from the route of social psychology, but in my days as a psychology graduate student little interest in social psychology at Chicago or elsewhere. Much, much more now; but personnel people have done little with it. Need of a great emphasis here. As illustrative consider my early and now-abandoned research interests here:

   3.1 Study of Student Leaders: See 1928 and 1931 articles in the Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology. Recall Corlis Lamont's informal studies of the Class of 1924 at Harvard wherein he showed that students from a small number of preparatory schools won all the key elective positions at Harvard. Leadership therefore a problem of the group mores as well as of individual differences.

   3.2 Study of Group Mores: The Dartmouth situation 1920-24 and the impetus therefrom. Canvassing the problem in the early thirties and association with Willard Waller. Some of the resulting publications:

   "Explaining the Rah Rah Boy," New Republic, April 14, 1926
   "A Study of Student Life," with Willard Waller, JHE, March 1935
   "Community Agencies Contributing to Individual Guidance," Bull. of Purdue University, Vol. 36, December 1935
   Chapter in University of Oklahoma volume, 1936:

   I cite these because so little work has been done in this field. Personnel people usually come up through psychology, seldom through sociology. Hence the lag here. The field crying for attention.

4. Summary: "The student personnel point of view" revolves about three propositions: (1) personalism versus impersonalism, (2) the scientific study of college students as groups and individuals psychologically, and (3) the scientific study of groups of students sociologically.

   Observe that the "point of view" includes two elements: (1) service to students and (2) research on the problems of students and of institutions of higher education in dealing with students. The practitioner in student personnel work must of necessity concentrate upon the first of these, but he cannot substantially improve his work unless the second is developed. He may become a more and more refined instrument of sensitivity, but he must depend upon scientific tools in the form of instruments of measurement and insightful generalizations.

   Unfortunately, however, personnel research gets relatively little attention. It is done in spare time left over from insistent operational demands. We badly need a national research unit in student personnel work. This unit would correlate the findings of individual investigators, make it widely available, and conduct research on its own. Cite the immediate need of research on student radicalism.

Student Personnel Services in American Higher Education

Part Two

College and University Personnel Groups

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Student Personnel Services

Topic Four: The American College Student

Introduction: We have finished Part One of the course wherein we (1) defined the field, (2) reviewed its historical backgrounds, and (3) described its philosophy. We now move into Part Two, which includes four topics: (1) the American college student, (2) the American college professor, (3) the American college administrator, and (4) varieties of personnel workers.

Remember that in the first topic I reviewed the two dominant meanings of the word Personnel, and in these four topics we shall be discussing personnel under the original meaning of the word as "a body of people." Colleges and universities deal with six such bodies of people: (1) students, (2) faculty, (3) administrators, (4) maintenance staffs, (5) alumni, and (6) trustees. In Part Two we shall be discussing three of these groups -- the first three -- but we shall add a fourth topic on the subdivision of the third group which makes up the staff of SPW, to wit, student personnel workers. Since SPS depends largely upon them, they deserve a full topic.

In the first of the four sessions of Part Two I attempt to describe the American college student. The effort should properly take a fairly extended series of lectures and could well develop into a fat book. Time for more than one session is not available, and unfortunately I know of no book that covers the topic adequately. Here are some books which seem to me important:

Robert Cooley Angell, The Campus, 1929; A Study in Undergrad. Adj. 1930 (PN 105-166).
Henry Seidel Canby, Alma Mater, 1936.
Babcock, The American College Graduate, 1942.
Jones, Mose, and O'Riley, For Men Lonely, 1948.
H. D. Sheldon, Student Life and Customs, 1901.
Christian Gauss, Life in College, 1930.
Chas, Homer Haskins, The Rise of the Universities, 1923.
Patton and Field, Eight O'Clock Chapel, 1927.

As far as I know, no one has yet written a comprehensive book describing the college student as a phenomenon of American life. Some one ought to, and he who does the job with imagination and grace could make a tidy fortune. The country is very much aware of the college student and has a deep interest in him. He who exploits this interest effectively (and humorously as well as in high seriousness at the proper places) would be doing the country, SPW people, and himself a substantial service. I throw the idea out with the hope that some student in my courses will take it up and carry it through to success. I ask no more than a modest percentage of the royalties!

Before beginning to describe the American college student as I see him, I'd like to add a term to the vocabulary of SPW, a term which I launched in an address at the University of Minnesota in November, 1947, to wit, student demography. Webster defines demography as "the statistical study of populations... usually restricted to physical conditions or vital statistics, though sometimes applied to studies of moral and intellectual conditions also." I use the term in the second and broader sense. Student demography, then, is the study of college students as a distinct group in American life. The term brings together all the pertinent facts about the species of American youths called college students -- all the facts of the group as distinguished from the facts about students as individuals.

I consider student demography to be an important branch of sociology in general. Unfortunately, however, the psychological elements of SPS have thus far been dominant, and since educational sociology has not been developed in the SPS sector, student demography has also been neglected. But in time it will come into its own, and meanwhile this present topic constitutes a venture into student demography.

Herein I shall describe the college student from ten directions as follows:

1. Numerically
2. Biologically
3. Psychologically
4. Educationally
5. Vocationally
6. Politically
7. Religiously
8. Socially
9. Morally
10. Spiritually

These categories overlap somewhat; but, then, all categories overlap. Defective though my classification be, it will serve as a scaffolding for the description of the American college student.

1. Numerically: A steady rise since about 1870. See the article in Science, 5-13-09 by ProfessorGuido Oscar Marx of Stanford wherein he prints charts of growth since 1870. PN 255.19. Need of bringing these graphs up to date.

    1.1 Undergraduates:

        1.11 Pre-Civil War: In 1827 only 1399 college students in New England. Yale had 411, Harvard 216 in 1838-39 and, the same year, Princeton 237 and Pennsylvania 105. Cite Wayland's studies of 1842 and 1850 and F.P.A. Barnard's study of 1868.

        1.12 1870: 54,500 students in 369 institutions. The curve upward in the enrollment curve began about 1885.

        1.13 1900: 104,098.

        1.14 1908: 265,966: 195,391 men and 70,575 women.

        1.15 1939-40: 1,494,203: 893,250 men and 600,953 women.

        1.16 1948-49: 2,408,000.

        1.17 1953-54: About 2,100,000.

        1.18 1960: In 1947 the Truman Commission advocated an expansion to 4,600,000, but this now seems an unlikely development.

See my article on the Truman Report in the Journal of Higher Education, June, 1948 and also Seymour Harris' book The Market for College Graduates, 1949.

1.2 Graduate Students: The above statistics include graduate students, but here we separate them:

Pre-Civil War: Only a handful.

1878: About 400. Yale gave the first American Ph.Ds in 1861. Swing over of name from colleges to universities: Yale in 1887, Princeton in 1896, Columbia in 1912.

1900: Something over 5,000. 342 Ph.Ds given this year compared with 2,024 in 1930 and 3,459 in 1941.

1953: In 1952-53 a total of 61,023 master's degrees and 8,309 doctor's degrees were conferred in the CUs of the country.

1.3 Professional Students: Comparable huge growth. Need help to chart the growth.

1.4 Reasons for the Growth: The modern world seems to me to have begun during the last half of the 18th century. In any event, consider the increased power available to man emerging in the year 1776 alone:

1.41 Technological Power: Watt's steam engine. This ended the Age of Muscle Power and started the Age of Machine Power. Other sources of mechanical power followed soon.

1.42 Economic Power: Keynes gives the date 1580 here, but in 1776 Adam Smith published The Wealth of Nations, the rationale of modern capitalism.

1.43 Scientific Power: Jeans gives the date January 7, 1610, but I prefer 1776 since during this year Lavoisier stated the law of combustion and remade all science thereby.

1.44 Political Power: The Declaration of Independence symbolized the entrance of the masses into political power.

1.45 Religious Power: Finally held in check (in its political aspects) by Jefferson's leadership begun with his bill presented to the Virginia Legislature in 1776 and passed in 1789.

1.5 Other and Later Reasons for the Growth of AHE:

1.51 The Land Grant College Act of 1862: The combination of the many earlier efforts of Franklin, Wayland, Greeley, et al to force the colleges to serve "the industrial classes."

1.52 The Spiritual Urge: Best described by Canby in Alma Mater.

Youth sought not only vocational training but also relief from the boredom and limitations of industrialized America.

1.53 Higher Education Becomes a Mass Phenomenon: The above considerations -- plus others -- made the masses reach out for higher education. It began about 1885 -- that is, after the passage of the Land Grant College Act. The Truman Report carries the movement to its ultimate conclusions. The college has become the surest economic and social elevator in American life. Many problems here.

2. Biologically:

2.1 Sex: Hellenistic and Islamic institutions of higher education often coeducational, but in the Christian world the status of women has not been high until the past century. Nor was it high among the Greeks. Plato classed women, children, and servants together; and Christianity, more Greek in many ways than it is Hebrew, considered women as of "a finer texture" morally than man but inferior to him intellectually and spiritually as well as physically. The Romans, however, thought highly of their women and made it possible for them to rise to high status in their counsels.

The present improved status of women comes not from ancient historical sources, however, but from the humanitarian movement of the 19th century. St. Paul feared and hated sex, and so he abhorred women, but the humanitarians sought to liberate women from this Christian taint -- from this Christian schizophrenia which on the one hand considered her the source of evil and on the other worshipped her in Mariolatry and other forms of "lady worship." The humanitarians succeeded spectacularly, and the United States is now generally considered by European observers to be a feminized nation. Three or four years ago a vigorous reaction set in. See such books, for example, as Woman, the Lost Sex by Farnham and Lundberg and Generation of Vipers by Philip Wylie. Also recall the jibes of Will Rogers who remarked about twenty years ago that "I never expected to see the day when the girls would get sunburned where they do now."

But remember that Will Rogers acted for a long time in Ziegfield's Follies, the American institution which "glorified" rampant female beauty and rampant sexual attraction. The humanitarians had higher notions of woman's place: they sought to glorify her mind and her alleged finer-textured conscience, and they worked to develop institutions to promote equality of opportunities with men. Chief among these was the drive for what they called "female education." Their efforts took three forms as follows:

2.11 Separate Institutions: Mary Lyon's Female Seminary 1827. Others about the same time leading to the establishment of Vassar, Smith, Wellesley, Bryn Mawr, etc. in the last part of the 19th century.

2.12 Co-education: First at Oberlin 1833. Gradually accepted by state universities.

2.13 Coordinate Education: Women in the same institution with men but in separate colleges and classes on the same campus. Examples: Pembroke at Brown, Barnard at Columbia, Radcliffe at Harvard.

Many Problems: The original opposition to "femal education" came from those who asserted that women couldn't stand the strain physically or who believed that "woman's proper place is in the bed of labor." Also some opposition came from those who didn't want women to invade the private preserves of men: Cornell fraternities long refused to invite co-eds to their dances. The problem today: can institutions of higher education be real intellectual institutions when youth considers them (especially feminine youth) as marriage markets. Two sides of the questions: 1) in our urban, impersonal society opportunities for meeting members of the opposite sex must be provided, and youth has chosen the colleges: 2) but what of carrying on the intellectual progress of the race? The combination can be made -- in my judgment -- only under brilliant teaching. This we are not likely to get for some time because of the dominance of the Higher Learning and the resulting neglect of the Higher Education.

2.2 Age Range:

2.21 Pre-Civil War: Median age of freshmen about 15, but many older students.

2.22 Late 19th Century: Median age of Harvard freshmen in 1889; 19 yrs and 6 mths. U.S. Com. of Educ. Report 1889-90, 2:799-803. The campaign for the junior college pushed forward by this increase. Also the campaign of Eliot to reduce the length of the college course to three years. See my article "A Ninety-Year-Old Conflict Erupts Again," Educ. Record, April, 1942.

2.23 1940: Reduction of the length of the secondary school course and other developments pushed median age of freshmen back to about 18.

2.3 Anthropometric Status: Substantial increase in the height and weight of college students during the past sixty years. See F9.1.

2.4 Health: Immensely improved despite the statistics of the draft boards. A study needs to be made here. Students used to die frequently in the colleges from epidemics. Beginning of health education at Amherst in 1859. Rise of athletics, physical education, health services.

3. Psychologically:

3.1 Motivations: See my article "Education for the Great Community," Journal of General Education, October 1946.

3.11 Physical: To be a good animal. This now socially respectable, but still disdained by professors who want students to be good minds only. Also disdained by the religionists who abhor the body in the Pauline tradition.

3.12 Social: Citethe urge to belong: thus fraternities, athletic teams, dormitories, etc. Also the urge to get on with the opposite sex. Also the drive to use the college as a "social elevator." A great problem of higher education: how to coordinate these social urges with the intellectual responsibilities of higher education. We fumble for the answer!

3.13 Vocational: This dominant because almost everyone on the make -- and inevitably. College the open sesame for the wherewithal of life in adulthood. Naturally students steer for vocational goals, but this underprivileges the demands of society for broadly educated men and women. Much bickering here among educators, but the public and students know what they want. Yet society suffers -- FDR and dearth "generalizing minds." Truman's recent assertion that he can't find men equipped to assume great public responsibilities. Thus the rise of the military to positions formerly held by civilains. Cite Dartmouth veteran in PN 391.7.

3.14 Spiritual: Define in this-worldly terms. The Greek words for spirit were animus, that is, vitality; pneuma, or breath; and psyche, or inner life. It originally had no religious meaning and need not have now. The urge to belong and the urge for a meaning for life are spiritual in this this-worldly sense. Cite Canby again, but college life has lost its pull. Again cite the Dartmouth veteran and also San Diego State College's "S" on the mountain. Students today want more than college life. Cite Dorothy Thompson's column.

3.2 Intelligence:

3.21 Influence of the Mass Movement: The common people have as high verbal intelligence proportionally as the traditional upper classes. This denied historically by many, but the fact has been demonstrated beyond question. Yet large numbers of youths with lower-level verbal intelligence have been attracted to colleges. Thus the average goes down. Junior colleges now serving the "semi-professions" and students with a lower average verbal intelligence. Also many other institutions have seen their averages come down because of the presence of the sons and daughters of men who have made a lot of money in pursuits not requiring high verbal intelligence.

3.22 Many Issues Here: Some of them are:

3.221 Segregation of the Gifted? Should the gifted be segregated educationally from the run-of-the-mine college students? Many educators opposed on the grounds that democracy would be impaired by segregation. Yet the presence of low-level verbal ability in institutions of higher education pushes down the average performance, and college programs are geared for the average student. Meanwhile the bright dawdle. Cite O'Brien's thesis thesis. Some proposals: 1) the Honors Course plan initiated at Swathmore and copied by over 150 institutions, 2) the preceptorial plan at Princeton and the tutorial plan at Harvard, 3) the high admissions requirement at some of the prestige institutions. Also the three levels of higher education now evolving in California and New York. But no generally satisfactory plan has as yet been found. FINDING SUCH A PLAN ONE OF THE CHIEF PROBLEMS OF AMERICAN HIGHER EDUCATION.

3.222 The Gifted Defined: High verbal intelligence does not alone make a student gifted. The bright student must also be vigorously motivated to use his high abstract intelligence. Thus the pertinence of Jefferson's term "the aristoracy of talents and virtue." Here "virtue" means motivation for the improvement of this world. Remember, Jefferson's religious convictions were Unitarian, that is, this-worldly as opposed to next worldly.

3.223 Many Kinds of Giftedness: Max MacLean et al hold that we must recognize and provide for many types of giftedness: social and artistic, medicine and mathematical as well as verbal. Right, of course, but still verbal intelligence the prime type.

3.224 Competition with Russia: Russia seems to be segregating its gifted youth and developing them vigorously. Two factors in that development: 1) specialization dominant, 2) the general education available swings around the pivot of Marxism and is not generally free. These are serious limitations, but can we succeed in competition with Russian if we fail to develop our aristocracy of talent and virtue more effectively than we do now?

3.225 Mediocrity Dominating American Life: Quote from my Fresno commencement address, "All God's Chillun Got Wings." The average literacy goes up, but the peaks have all been truncated. Stress now on "the common man," but it should be on "the average man." A high average requires a large number of highly cultivated people. To develop such people the job of institutions of higher education.

3.3 Attitudes: Vastly important in any discussion of the psychology of any individual or group. Attitudes grow essentially from one's motivations which in turn depend upon the social context. Thus the technological-urban civilization of modern America has changed the attitudes of college student who today differ very substantially from their predecessors of earlier times. I shall describe a number of these attitudes in later sections of this lecture, but here I merely list several that seem to me to be highly significant:

3.31 The Hunt for Security: See Item 5. below.

3.32 Political Immaturity: See Item 6. below.

3.33 Seeks Educational Symbols Not Educational Essence: See Item 4.31 below.

3.34 Seeks Spiritual Integration: See Item 10. below and Item 3.14 above.

4. Educationally: The college student (or some of his number) becomes the college graduate, and we need to assess his educational status upon the completion of his college courses. What is he like in terms of 1) knowledge, 2) skills, and 3) dominant attitudes?

4.1 Knowledge: On the average ignorant in comparison with his predecessors and the graduates of European institutions of higher education. Cite the Carnegie Foundation study of Pennsylvania colleges; the New York Times editorial writer who called them soft, sloppy, and distorted (PN 113.99); Dorothy Thompson and the young women applying to her for jobs (PN 257.174); Tunis and the Harvard graduates of the Class of 1911 who preferred the sports page to all others (PN 1037.43). Etc.

4.11 Essential Cause: The rapid spread of specialization in college courses demanded by specialized professors on the one hand and by jobs on the other. Cite Wolff in the New Republic for 6-30-47 (PN 5.626) on the latter score. The furor about general education today grows in large measure from the excessive development of specialized education at the expense of general education.

4.12 The Return to Commonality: Specialization has been rampant, but now we witness a return to emphasis on commonality. See the Harvard Report, etc.

4.2 Skills: Education now given in specialized skills of high order, but the general skills of reading, writing, talking, and general thinking scandalously neglected. These skills are nobody's concern except possibly the Department of English, but the teaching of English composition a chore assigned to assistants and young callow instructors. Hutchins a decade ago cited the Yale law school students (PN 319.17) who "could not read or write." Not an exaggeration. Cite Gideonse, Hutchins' bitter opponent (PN 319.91). Thus everyone agrees that the product of the college is deficient in the basic skills (as well as the knowledge) necessary for civilized living.

4.3 Attitudes: Some of the most important attitudes of college students and college graduates seem to be:

4.31 The Desire for the Symbols of Education But Not the Essence: The phenomenal growth of knowledge made it imperative that the protective tariffs of the classics and mathematics be destroyed. This necessity, joined with the mass movement into higher education, made mechanical measuring devices almost inevitable; and thus arose the credit system. This now grips the colleges viciously, and students seek the symbols (credits) of education rather than that for which the symbols presumably stand. Much educational counseling mere juggling of the academic bookkeeping involved in the credit system. Personnel people cannot do anything directly here, but they must be aware of the problem and lend their support to efforts to abandon the credit system. What should replace it? Achievement measurement! And, first, clear statements of the knowledge, skills, and attitudes to be measured.

4.32 Standardized Attitudes: Sinclair Lewis' criticism in *Arrowsmith* still holds true: college students and college graduates are "beautifully standardized." (PN 24.22). That is, concerning life in general they think much alike, act much alike. The failure of general education has made for specialized diversity, but politically the great majority of college graduates are politically conservative. Cite the recent article on the Princeton Class of 1932 in *Life*. They are economically on the make. Cite the Pace Study at Minnesota.

4.33 Other Attitudes: See in particular Items 5 and 6 below.

4.34 In General: The American college graduate in general defends the status quo and has lost the reforming spirit of his predecessors. Few agree with Emerson that "He who would be a man must be a reformer." This seems silly to the college product of today.

He seeks his niche in the politico-economic structure, and finding that niche proves so difficult that he has little energy left over for improving the world. BUT DON'T BLAME THE COLLEGE GRADUATE OR THE COLLEGE STUDENT! Look for the reasons which include: 1) the closing of the frontier, 2) the conversion of most Americans into employees, 3) the ravages of specialization which have blurred general education, and 4) the dearth of great teaching under the impact of the abounding stress on the higher Learning as opposed to the Higher Education.

5. Economically:

5.1 The Increasing Demand for Financial Aid: Students have always had financial aid for college and university attendance. Cite the funds from prebendaries, exhibitions, and fellowships in medieval higher education. Cite the scholarships and part-time employment in the Old American College: jobs in the buttery, etc.

The mass movement into higher education has multiplied these demands for assistance. The demand came to a head during the depression of the 'Thirties and led to the establishment of N.Y.A. to balance the aid given to less-capable youths in the C.C.C. Now for some time educators and members of the general public have been campaigning vigorously for federal scholarships. The Truman Commission Report has brought these many efforts together in its proposals that the Federal Government establish:

a) 300,000 scholarships up to "a proposed maximum of $800 for an academic year" at a cost of $120,000,000 for each group of students, or a maximum annually of $480,000,000. 1: 52-53.

b) 30,000 fellowships for graduate and professional school students, each fellowship to pay a maximum of $1,500, and the total cost of the fellowship program to be $45,000,000. 1:55-57.

5.2 The Huge Development of Urban, Non-Residential Institutions: Until about 1870 all American institutions of higher education were residential, but the mass movement into higher education brought a huge growth of urban, non-residential institutions: formerly called trolley-car colleges. The effort in this direction began by President Francis Wayland of Brown in his 1842 book, Thoughts of the Present Collegiate System and carried forward by President Henry P. Tappan at the University of Michigan, 1852-63. Both argued against residence of students largely because of their desire to break up the riots and rebellions that punctuated life in the Old American College. Their position became dominant throughout the country, but Yale and Princeton stuck to the philosophy of "the collegiate way of living," Cotton Mather's phrase.

William Rainey Harper reestablished the residential principle at Chicago in 1893 -- against bitter opposition. But even Michigan followed his leadership in 1915 when it built its first domitory since Tappan in 1852 converted Michigan's one dormitory into a classroom building. The Harvard and Yale developments of small-unit housing in the 'Twenties brought the swing toward residence to its high point. Then came the depression, and the trolley-car philosophy boomed again.

Residence expense constitutes a large item in student budgets, and so we cite the problem here. We shall discuss it at greater length in the lecture on Housing. Enough for the time being to point out that the advocates for federal aid ignore or even condemn the housing of students on college and university campuses. Conant an example. In his Sachs Lectures of 1945 and in his Education in a Divided World he calls residence costs "needless expense." But, of course, Harvard continues to value it and to insist upon it for the great majority of its students. Thus Conant plays both sides of the street. More of this in the Housing Lecture. Enough to point out now that in my judgment trolley-car institutions can clearly be as good intellectual institutions as residential colleges and universities, but few except Hutchins would limit higher education to intellectual development alone.

A complete higher education includes social education, and the trolley-car colleges do little here -- can do little. Residence costs may be "needless expense" for intellectual development (although this could be argued!), but the socializing of the student has high importance, and it cannot be so easily dismissed as Conant dismisses it. Cite Henry Stimson's address at my induction at Hamilton. Much more about this later. Meanwhile read my inaugural address at Hamilton: "Intelligence is Not Enough" published in the Journal of Higher Education, December, 1938.

5.3 The Success Motive Dominant: Higher education has been sold to the American people as the royal road to economic secruity and success. This is an important purpose of higher education, but it is not the only purpose. Yet some students think it is. See the Stanford Daily editorial comment of 6-30-47 to the Dartmouth veteran's criticism cited under Item 3.13 (PN 391.7). The success motive and American Materialism inevitable until recently. See my article "Education for the Great Community."

Hutchins et al condemn "the love of money," but they're naive. The fruit there to pluck, and people would have been fools not to pluck it -- fools or devotees of other important social interests. The motive continues today (see Wolff in PN 5.626), but the opportunities aren't so abundant. We face a violent and perhaps revolutionary yell from the youth of the nation when they discover that the opportunities aren't as abundant as they once were. The left-wing political parties will move in to organize this discontent unless we do something about it to 1) understand the imminent danger, and 2) to fend it. How to fend it? By good general education which makes people see the spiritual opportunities in the life about them.

We must accept the fact (most of us) that we have become inevitably a nation of employees. About this we can do nothing. We shall all be working for large corporations (or most of us) or for the state. One is as bad as the other, but only one person in ten today works for himself, and the proportion will decrease under present-day trends. Many will fight to reconstruct the politico-economic structure of American society (as some have been doing since the beginning of Albert Brisbane's campaign in 1840); and they may succeed.

If they win, what then? We work for the state, and that's not a bit better than working for a large corporation. In fact, there's little difference. Thus men and women must turn inward; and while demanding adequate incomes to live reasonably well, they must develop their internal (that is, spiritual) resources. This the job of general education and of religion.

5.4 The Change in Vocational Directions Since 1900: Cite my as-yet-unpublished article, "Students Seek Power." Point out that the percentage of students going into business careers has doubled since 1900 (37.2% in 1940), but the percentage choosing governmental careers has increased five times in the same period (5.4% in 1940, but 6.3% of men under thirty). The trend toward government will, in my judgment, accelerate faster than the trend toward business. The basic issue political not economic. The struggle with Russia the decisive element.

5.5 Time of Vocational Choice: Many studies here, but no generalizations of wide validity have been developed on the questions of 1) when the choice is made, 2) the most desirable time to make the choice, and 3) the relationship of time of choice to career success. In special fields (such, for example, as engineering) some valid studies have been made, but they apply only to engineers, not to college students in general. Factors here: 1) individual differences, 2) the influence of good teaching upon the changing of student choices, 3) the desirability of delayed choice of some students -- especially the gifted, and 4) the blotting out of general educational aims when the vocational motive is clearly established.

Summary of the College Student Economically: The Events of 1776 have sent great masses of students to colleges and universities, and most of them need 1) financial assistance during their college years, and 2) training for careers which will bring them economic security if not outstanding success. Few of them have inherited wealth, and thus primarily they seek economic training in college and economic status in society. Thus above all else college students today seek economic power. Cite my unpublished article "Students Seek Power" wherein I trace the different vocational directions of students over the past three centuries in terms of the politico-economic situation at the time they are in college. Since we now move toward statism, the trend of choice is in the direction of jobs with governmental units. The curve of government employment of college graduates accelerates six times faster than the curve of employment by business organizations. This an eloquent fact in describing the student of today economically. Also eloquent in discussing present political trends.

6. Politically:

6.1 Past: A century ago the political career had the most attractiveness for college graduates. Not true since 1870 when businessmen gained the greatest share of political and social power in the United States. Here develop my concept that government is the paramount social organization of men. This concept developed in my course on the Government of Higher Education. Pertinent now because of the neglect of political careers by college graduates for a full century. The trend back illustrated by Dewey, Harriman, Forrestal, Wallace, FDR, et al.

6.2 Present: The depression of the Thirties and the two world wars have made the nation infinitely more mature politically than ever before in our history except during the Revolution. Compare the newspaper discussions of political and economic questions today as compared with 1910 -- and even much later. The college playboy of the 1920's has few counterparts today, and this means that the college student reflects the polico-economic seriousness of his elders. All this is good, but it presages great difficulties for the future unless we continue to have an expanding economy.

In short, we are training myriads for jobs which can only be available if our economy keeps on growing. The Truman Commission ignores the issues here and proposes that 4,600,000 students be enrolled in American junior colleges, colleges, and universities by 1960. But can the economy absorb them? And what will happen if it can't? See my review of the Truman Report in the Journal of Higher Education for June, 1948.

One does not need to be a Marxian to agree that politics rests largely on economics. The medieval Roman Catholic epigram primus est vivere holds true in every age, and thus the political sentiments of students at all points in history are determined by the status of things economic. Most students are today politically conservative, but will they continue to be in the future? Look at some of the signs on the horizon.

6.3 Future: Refer to the prognostication in my unpublished article "Students Seek Power." Also refer back to Item 5.3 and the political powder keg inherent in the almost sure-to-come economic disappointment of college students on the make economically. In Europe and the Latin-American countries students have always been potent political forces, but not so in the United States. The college students of other countries have been in the tradition of the medieval universities (Bolgna in particular) and have been raised on the idea that students have political rights and responsibilities. This never developed in the United States because of the youth of the nation and also because of the youth of college students until 75 years ago.

But this will all change -- has already changed. Within my lifetime I expect to see college students a powerful political force. Their numbers will alone make this inevitable. Add to this their indubitable disappointment with the opportunities available to them, and they will be ripe for political organization.

But the shades of political opinion will be many. In general the Eastern colleges will be politically conservative if not reactionary. So also with the students in such institutions as

Stanford in the West. Those coming from the economic upper-classes will in general be all for the status quo, but those coming from the economic lower classes will probably go left. But there will be notable exceptions, and vigorous radical groups will develop at Harvard, Yale -- even at Princeton and Dartmouth. But the really radical students will come from the trolley-car colleges. Personnel people had better get ready for these developments. They will bear the brunt of the controversies!

7. *Religiously*: The secularization of American life has been proceeding apace for well over a century. All five of the great events of 1776 have contributed to it. Thus today college students are not in general religious in the sense of supporting the churches. That they have spiritual hungers no one can doubt, but the big issue here facing our age is whether or not we shall return to super-naturalism or go on to a more sensible this-worldliness.

Here Hutchins et al move in with their appeal for supernaturalism. This the core of the fight between Hutchins and Dewey. The fight rages, and no one can guess the outcome. Certainly youth will demand more spiritual *solaces* as economic opportunities decrease. A century ago de Tocqueville predicted that the country would go Roman Catholic, and we move rapidly in that direction. This supremely supernatural religion will take over American life unless those who advocate this worldly spiritual strengths stop retreating.

Unitarianism, so Jefferson thought, would attract all the gifted youth of the nation. For a while it did, but the business bonanza killed Unitarianism -- that plus the austerity of its philosophy and ceremonies. The Deweyites seem to me to see the issue but vaguely since they condemn ritual (in effect) and since until the publication of Hook's book they stressed education for economic success much more than for spiritual strength.

These are pressing current issues with tremendous significance for the future. Meanwhile, the facts of the 1930s demonstrate the widespread irreligion of college students. Cite my article in the JHE for April 1938, pp. 226-27. This important because the churches condemn the colleges for making students irreligious, but the facts I gathered a dozen years ago demonstrate that the great majority of college students enter with irreligious convictions. Thus the college is not to blame. Rather the general secularization of American life must be held accountable. PERSONNEL PEOPLE MUST KNOW THIS FACT.

The hubbub of current religious interest and discussion may or may not continue. I rather think it will and that the essential reason will be economic disappointment. When the material world fails people, many turn to religion, to pie-in-the-sky-bye-and-bye. Or they turn radical. In both the Roman Catholic and Protestant churches, groups demanding economic reform are busy talking about improving *this* world. The primary religious question, as I see it, is this: will the supernaturalists win out (as usually they have in the past) or will the this-worldly reformers in the churches dominate?

Thus we have two issues: 1) supernaturalism versus this-worldliness on theological grounds -- and many, many people need the solace of religion here, and 2) conservatism versus reconstructionism within the supernatural churches. Cite the writings of Reinbold Niebuhr, particularly his Moral Man in Immoral Society, 1932.

I give this much attention to religion because the college campus will be the scene of very important battles and decisions and because PERSONNEL PEOPLE WILL BE IN THE MIDST OF THEM.

8. Socially: I've discussed this topic briefly in Item 3.12, but here I'd like to develop it more fully. Several points must be further explored:

8.1 Gregariousness: All humans are gregarious. This must be the point of departure in all discussions of the student socially. Students, like all humans, want to belong to something better and bigger than themselves. Intellectualistic professors ignore, if not denounce, this urge; but they cannot stop it. Professors, like myself, who admit the social urges of students and recognize their importance, are likely to be critical of the juvenility of student social life. This a sign of increasing age. Thus students run their own social programs unaided by the adults in the academic community EXCEPT PERSONNEL PEOPLE who must continue to stay young in spirit else they lose their effectiveness here. More about this topic under fraternities and other social organization in later lectures.

8.2 Adapting to the Opposite Sex: Whether we like it or not (and I for one don't like it), the college has become the accepted meeting ground of a large proportion of the better-endowed youth of the nation. This has resulted from the impersonality of urban communities and the specialization of interests that power technology has produced. Where else could youth turn for mating opportunities than to the colleges? The question is extraneous since youth has turned to the colleges, and society (although not the professors) has given its approval. The race must go on!

Despite all the humor about the college being a mating medium, the situation isn't as clear-cut as that. Many college students do meet their future mates in college, but the question is not only mating but also social experience with the opposite sex. The same situation exists here as with mating. Where in American life can youth meet socially? For non-college youth we have developed little except the coke parlor and the tavern. College students (some of them) use these too, but most students don't frequent them because of college parties, dances, trysts in the library, etc. Take away these trysting places on the campus, and the commercialized entertainment agencies will take over completely. They have great pulling power now, but the stronger intellectualism grows, the greater will be the trade of the taverns, etc.

The question which interests me most here is how to have the sexes associate with one another on higher grounds than mere small talk and dancing. I don't belittle these, but I want more than that. I want to see young men and women have spiritual (as I've defined the term) experiences of a higher order in common. The only answer that I can see is inspired, inspiring teaching. This, unfortunately, we are not going to get very abundantly until we resolve the conflict between the Higher Learning and the Higher Education.

Until the very recent past I didn't think that a resolution of this problem would come in my lifetime, but the situation improves substantially. For example, President Conant seems to be coming around to see the strategic importance of doing something about the conflict; and because of Conant's prestige, he's a key person here, perhaps the key person now that Hutchins has shot his ineffective bolt.

Conant wrote me on the question on August 24, 1946 that he saw no reason to modify his views on the question as expressed in his Tercentenial Address of 1936. He wrote "I doubt if I shall be flexible minded enough to change them anymore." But he is beginning to change, and after reading the manuscript of my as-yet-unpublished article "The Higher Learning Versus the Higher Education," he wrote on January 3, 1949 "As for your fundamental point, I am on the side of President Wilkins, though probably you would not know it." Now this is of great importance because President Wilkins vigorously attacked the universities in the 'Twenties for training all their graduate students to become research people the while completely neglecting their training as communicators of the higher learning. To have Conant say that he agrees with Wilkins (and I described Wilkins' position at length in my article), is progress indeed. It may well be that he will soon come out in support of a reform of the graduate school -- and that's the bottleneck.

To return to the question with which we started: how can college students be educated together without the social-sexual being dominant? The answer as I see it is brilliant college teaching which will lift students above the insistent urges of what Eliot called "the electric years" and bring them to common ground on the great problems of the race. Thus the social problem is really an intellectual problem, and it can be resolved only by the presence of brilliant teachers on college campuses -- and in large numbers. This requires that the graduate school be reformed to produce such teachers. They are not even attempting the job now.

9. Morally: I distinquish morals from religion because historically they have often been separated. Witness, in particular, the Greek world. Many people, of course, need the support of religion to maintain their morality; but many, on the other hand, don't. In any event, I discuss morality apart from religion although anyone may join them who wishes.

    9.1 Morality Defined: Many definitions possible -- as with all definitions; but I would stress 1) the human sources, and 2) its inclusion of all the behavior norms of men. In brief, men have developed morality, and it includes all the normative agreements of men about all kinds of behavior. I stress the latter point because of the inclination of some college students to limit morality to sexual behavior.

9.2 *Sexual Morality*: Fluctuates from college generation to college generation and from campus to campus. In general a spirit dominants all the youth of the nation at different periods. From 1760 to the first decade of the nineteenth century the sexual morality of college students was rather low. The laxity of Deism responsible here. Such laxity not necessary, but it existed then. Came the Second Awakening, and students got religion. Yet the revivals which punctuated every college year were followed by alcoholic and libidinous debauchery. The Victorian Age made people sexually prudish but it did not dampen the fires of youth. Prostitutes abundant, and college students usually frequented them.

The roaring 'Twenties stimulated by the first world war and the writings of F. Scott Fitzgerald, Percy Marks, Warner Fabian, et al brought sex into the open, This, in my judgment, very good. Meanwhile the Freudians have made their large contribution to candor and to understanding. I went to college during the roaring Twenties, and I've no reason to know the status of current morality among college students. It's my opinion, however, that it's healthier today than during the Deistic period, the Victorian Era, or during the roaring "Twenties. Am I wrong about this?

9.3 *Academic Morality*: The conflict between the psychology of the honor system and the drive to get the symbols of education rather than the education. In my opinion the latter urge has greater power than the former, but maybe I'm wrong. In any event, the commercial honesty of the nation in general expressed here too. Cite the southern code of the gentleman made possible by the economic situation in the ante-bellum South and the horse-trading, *caveat emptor* code of the North. Morality depends upon the economic situation! In the academic world grades have economic significance, and so many students condone cheating.

9.4 *The Importance of Student Mores*: Morality is *customary* law, that is the unwritten law of the group plus, of course, the codified agreements of the group expressed in written law. Every campus abounds in such customary law, and we shall discuss these mores at length later in the course. They have vital importance, but personnel people have largely overlooked them.

10. *Spiritually*: I've made a number of references to spiritual considerations earlier in this lecture, and now I want to tie them together.

10.1 *Definition*: By spirit I mean an individual's organized relationship to himself and to his environment. For me the word is a synonym for the Self. See my article "Education for the Great Community." The Self is the Soul with the eschatogical elements abstracted. Retain them if you want, but spirit does not necessarily involve organized religion. As college spirit, etc.

10.2 *Organization Equals Degree of Integration*: The spirit or the Self becomes integrated around *purposes*. An individual is a Self to the degree that his purposes are clear -- not necessarily consciously, however. A person may be integrated in his subconscious mind so thoroughly that he never has a conscious thought about his integration. Indeed, the best integrated people just live; and they do not need to spend any time wondering about what they should do with their lives. They know down deep.

10.3 The Philosophy of Holism: An unhappy word I coined a dozen years ago. It has limitations, but until a better one is coined it will serve to denote the philosophy of education which asserts that the educational institutions of the country (of any country) must help students to become integrated, must assist them to develop whole Selves. This in opposition to the doctrine of intellectualism whichholds that colleges and universities have intellectual responsibilities towards students only. Here I war with Hutchins, the most articulate and persistent of the intellectualists.

10.4 The Self and the Economic Situation: Necessarily our American youth is on the make economically. We have little inherited wealth -- at least inherited wealth affects the lives of a very small fraction of the population. Similarly we have no inherited nobility. Thus students are on the make economically -- and also socially. THIS PREPOTENT FACT THE CRUX OF THE STRUGGLE FOR INTEGRATION OF AMERICAN YOUTHS. In brief, the spiritual struggle of American youths centers chiefly about the economic struggle. I don't accept the Marxian economic interpretation of history, but I cannot see how anyone can today fail to see that the economic situation affects every other. This is especially true where great wealth and status are not inherited by a whole class.

10.5 The Abounding Problems of the College Years: The core of the spiritual problems of students is the struggle for personal integration, for wholeness. This of course involves integration with others, with society at large, and especially with the economic situation. The problems of integration come into focus during the years of youth, that is, during the college years.

During this period students must: 1) make their heterosexual adaptations, 2) decide upon their careers and begin training for them, 3) come to conclusions on political and economic philosophy and 4) determine their relationship to religion.

These are hugeproblems, and they have much greater importance for most students than intellectual cultivation per se. SPW people in general know this, but most college professors don't. Certainly the intellectualists don't, and Hutchins is a comic figure when he writes about student life and student problems. Hutchins parades as the Boy Wonder of education, but he has apparently forgotten all about his boyhood -- or else, as some suspect -- he continues to be just a boy. In any event, the problems of students stand high in their minds, and SPW at least must help them find solutions for them.

Summary: This has been a long lecture -- much too long. One could well teach a course entirely devoted to the topics herein discussed. We shall come back to some of them in later lectures, but I shall not be able to develop many of the items in as much detail as I should like. This lecture will therefore have to suffice for the general description of the college student in American life.

My purpose, recall, has been to describe the college student as a phenomenon of the American scene. I have organized the description around ten topics. These are inadequate of course, and I solicit student suggestions for changes, developments, imporvements.

I would particularly emphasize the fact that I have been describing the college student as a type of young America. Thus necessarily I have discussed central tendencies chiefly. I have had to stick to the modal student and largely ignore the people out at the sigma fringes. In brief, I've given a sort of composite picture.

All this must be balanced by detail discussions of individual differences. This I shall attempt largely in the lecture on student appraisal. Meanwhile I would here stress the point that the individual must always be seen in relationship to his group, to the central tendencies of his group. That has been the purpose of this long lecture.

And I conclude with stressing the tremendous importance of student demography!!! The psychologists have made important contributions to SPW, and we must continue to have their interest and their work. But we must now encourage the sociologists to join the SPW enterprise and to add their contributions to those of the psychologists. I hope this lecture helps to make this need clear.

Topic Five

The American College Professor

Introduction: SPW people must deal continuously with professors, and thus they need comprehensive description. Logan Wilson's book, The Academic Man, 1942, is the only volume I know of which attempts this job, but it's far from complete. Thus students ought to read books by professors about professors including Bliss Perry's, And Gladly Teach, 1935; Barzun's Teaching in America, 1945; John Erskine's My Life as a Professor, 1948; John W. Burgess's, Reminiscences of an American Scholar, 1934, Lloyd S. Woodburn's Faculty Personnel Policies, 1950, etc.

In this session I'll try to describe the professor as I see him, and I begin with two points of general importance: (1) colleges and universities -- SPW people and others to the contrary -- exist for professors as well as for students; and (2) the professoriate improves in public esteem despite the jibes during the 'Thirties centered around the oft-used phrase "The Brain Trust." The Truman Commission (4:28.2) reports that professors as a group stand seventh in prestige among the professional people of the country, surpassed only by members of the Supreme Court, physicians, Governors of states, cabinet members, U. S. diplomats, and mayors of large cities. School teachers remain low in prestige rating, but professors rise steadily.

1. Numerically: Only 3201 in 1870 throughout the country but 21,960 in 1908. In 1944, 135,252, and estimated 155,000 in 1947. About 175,000 now. The Truman Commission recommends 350,000 by 1960. See Truman Report 6:36-38.

   Most present-day professors combine teaching, scholarship, research, and public services. In short, they are jacks-of-all trades. See my article, "The Professor's Numerous Duties," in School and Society, 7-15-33. Research professorships are now, however, appearing. Study needed here.

2. Physically:

   2.1 Sex: Of the 133,153 instructors in American colleges and universities in 1940, about 28% were women, the approximately same percentage as in 1930. Truman Report 6:36. In 1920 it was 26.6%. Ibid., p. 37. Statistics earlier seem not to be available. The rise from practically nothing to this substantial proportion followed (1) the establishment of women's colleges early in the 19th century and (2) the coming of coeducation. In 1940 40.2% of the students of the colleges and universities of the country were women compared with 39.6% in 1910. Thus we have achieved a stability of proportions: 6 students in 10 are men, and about 7 professors in ten are men. See Truman Report 6: table opposite p. 20.

   The Greeks knew -- and now we agree -- that women are endowed intellectually as are men and that the distribution of intelligence is the same in both sexes. Thus Pericles, Socrates, et al discussed their plans with their mistresses and admitted the high value of their advice. Also Hypatia taught at Alexandria in the fourth century. Happily rampant feminism is now all but dead. Again women's biological motivations are honored.

2.2 Health: A very healthy group. Cite the TIAA bankruptcy: cause-professors failing to conform to the usual acturial predictions. The professor lives a sedentary life and therefore lives longer. I point this out to those who suggest that I should exercise. I also recall the remark of Dr. Charles Mayo that the only exercise he gets is attending the funerals of those who exercise.

2.3 Age Range:

2.31 Before the Civil War: Many admitted to the full professorship in their early twenties. Little competition and therefore early rise to the top. In those days only two ranks: the professor and the tutor. Later the adjunct professorship added. This title still retained at some institutions. For example, at the University of Texas a dozen years ago and perhaps even now. Later a hierarchy established descending from professor to assistant instructor and "assistant." A research job needs to be done here on the development of the American academic hierarchy. In such a job the shifting age factor should be given particular attention. In general men do not attain to the rank of full professor today until they're about forty. Exceptions in both directions. Women wait even longer, on the average, for the kudos of full rank.

2.32 Today: Handled above.

2.33 The Future: The greater the competition and the greater the demand for more and more advanced specialized training the later will full rank be postponed. Add to this fact increased average age of the population, and it seems likely that one will have to be grey before becoming a full professor. Except, of course, in the new fields and in the new sectors of old fields. Consider nuclear physics where most of the big shots are young men. If one wants to become a full professor early, he should choose a new segment of an established discipline or an entirely new discipline.

2.34 Retirement: Retirement for age has become general during this century, the retiring ages being, in general, 65, 68, or 70. But some institutions, such as the University of North Carolina, permit men to stay on indefinietely. Men have taught there in their eighties. Because of the pushing up of the average age of the population we can expect two kinds of pressures here: (1) from the oldsters who want to stay on -- and many of whom should, and (2) from the youngsters who want them to retire and vacate their jobs to them. We'll have much agitation here in decades ahead.

3. Psychologically: Consider the four motivations of students which I reviewed in the last session: physical, social, vocational, spiritual.

3.1 Physical: Much the same as any other group of adults except that the professor leads a more sedentary life. Many play golf, etc. Many garden. "To be a good animal" not a particularly powerful motivation of American adults. American males are not like the Greeks who continued the motivations of bodily vigor and beauty all through life. American females? Ah, that's another bolt of cloth.

3.2 Social: The professor is less gregarious than most men. He is usually so absorbed in his work that he doesn't need other people so much as the average individual. Limiting himself to his own kind has its limitations among them:

1. His failure to understand the rest of the population,
2. His failure to be understood by them,
3. His failure to understand men in other academic departments. Here a faculty club has huge importance. Some faculty people join Rotary and other such clubs, but most of them are uncomfortable at such meetings. We need higher-level clubs for professors and other men to meet: university clubs, town-and-gown discussion groups, organizations like the Century Club.

In my judgment professors should attempt to bring the population up to their intellectual level and not descend to the level of the usual Rotary club. In brief, we need a large number of highly cultivated people equal to membership in such organizations. Specialization and the poverty of general education in recent decades have reduced the numbers of people interested in such associations. Thus the professor either goes off by himself or attempts to contact the average man on his low level. Why low level? I call singing slushy songs at the Rotary club a low level. We must be interested in communcation between the professor and other men, but we must also be interested in the quality of that communication.

3.3 Vocational: The professor is the specialist par excellence. So specialized is he that often he can't talk intelligently to professors in other specialities. Here the crucial importance of the faculty club! The professor has no vocational problem, of course, comparable to that of the student: he met the vocational problem years back. Often, therefore, he fails to understand the struggles of the student in trying to find his niche in the world. Unless he himself had a hard time making a decision, he has no empathy here. Thus he is often critical of so-called vocational counseling. He doesn't see the need of it.

3.4 Spiritual: In terms of my definition of "spiritual" at the end of the last topic, the professor is a very spiritual man. He's integrated about his intellectual enterprises. If he's a good professor (I don't mean a good teacher!), he has dedicated his life to learning -- or occasionally to teaching. The professoriate includes some lazy men and some muckers, but by and large professors are hard-working, integrated men. Many become ossified early because of disappointment in their working conditions, their boredome with students, their failure to hit pay dirt in their researches, their natural inclination to protect their vested interests, their limited social activities, etc. They seem, however, to be more integrated than almost any other variety of men.

3.5 Intelligence:

3.51 Abstract Intelligence: On the average of a very high order. And naturally. Abstract intelligence is the business of professors.

3.52 Verbal Intelligence: In this major sub-division of abstract intelligence the professors of the old-line verbal subjects rate, of course, at the very top. Not always so, however, with the professors in the applied and symbolic fields. Many professors write atrociously, for example. This, however, a result of poor general education rather than of native ability. The English scientists and engineers of the recent past, for example, usually wrote with charm and grace. They were educated that way. We have stressed specialization, and thus most of our scientific writers (and writers in most other subjects too for that matter') produce jargon, cant, dullness. But blame the educational system of the United States and not the native verbal intelligence of professors. The new emphasis on general education is changing this.

3.52 Social Intelligence: On the average of a low order: the result of the sequestration of professors socially plus their absorption in their work. In brief, professorial social intelligence has not usually been allowed to develop. This makes the life of the administrator of a college or a university much more difficult than the life of other kinds of administrators. Professors are individualists of an extreme kind. Many are prima donnas. Personnel people must know this in dealing with them.

3.6 Attitudes: Discussed in passim throughout the lecture.

4. Educationally: Along with physicians, professors are the most highly educated of all men. Yet this education is often minutely specialized. Thus many professors today are not what one would call "educated men." This not true in the past. Cite Benjamin Silliman, Senior, the first Yale chemist, for example: he examined freshmen in Greek, Latin, Hebrew, the Bible, history, English literature, etc. Specialization has pretty much killed all this. But no group of men need a solid foundation of general education more than professors. Our system of higher education, however, has not yet returned to this historic purpose.

5. Economically: In general the professor has no economic success motive although many professors do rather well by themselves financially through their textbooks and their consulting fees. The following points need particular exphasis:

5.1 Present Status Bad: In the past, salaries low, but the relative income of professors was high. Consider the houses they built here on the Stanford campus. Now a low-income group, earning less, in the lower and middle ranks, than barbers, milkmen, waiters. Cite the article in a recent issue of the United States News suggesting that good men are not going into the professoriate because of low economic return. The same situation here as with school teachers. Better, but much the same. No, not better at the lower ranks since beginning school teachers generally earn more than beginning college instructors.

5.2 Competition between Institutions: The eastern universities have the higher salaries -- much, much higher. Harvard pays full professors from twelve to fifteen thousand dollars. Columbia recently announced a similar scale. This bad for institutions like Stanford which have much lower scales. Also the state universities in the West, at least, now pay larger salaries than Stanford: even the seven state colleges in California. Thus Stanford competes with Chico, Fresno, and other such institutions.

5.3 The Experiment with Unitary Incomes: Chicago and a number of other universities are experimenting with unitary incomes, that is, with the plan of requiring all professors to turn in all their earnings from textbooks, consulting fees, etc. to the university. Cite Ralph Tyler. This plan can work only when the salary scale is high. Advantages: no jobs just for added income. Disadvantages: many extra jobs have high educational value for professors, but these are often turned down because the income won't come to the professor.

5.4 The Responsibilities Income Plan: Some few theorists play with the idea that professors should be paid in terms of the size of their families and of their other responsibilities for the support of parents, etc. I know of no American institution which follows this method of paying its staff, but it will probably come in for further discussion and perhaps trial. Denounced as socialistic, yet it has some merits. Our tradition, however, is that men be paid in terms of their competitive worth rather than in terms of their responsibilities or of their contributions to the continuation of the race. Would it be good for professors to have more children? In general, yes. More sons and daughters of professors have risen to eminence in American life than the children of any other group except clergymen..

6. Politically: Despite the red-hunting zealots, most professors are politically conservative -- expecially those in the applied subjects. Professors of engineering as a group, for example, have the same conservative political convictions, by and large, as engineers. Scientists have been notoriously conservative, but the agitation of the nuclear physicists may change this. The radicals are largely in the social sciences; but many social scientists are not radical. Cite the professor who snapped his finger at the fall of Fort Sumpter and Archibald MacLeish's powerful speech of some years ago on the apathy of professors. The New Deal pulled in many professors, but lots of them were very conservative. Thus Washington became a battle ground between professors of different shades of political opinion.

One fact the red-hunters overlook, namely, that the communists always liquidate the professors first and especially the liberal professors. They have no use for liberals of any stripe because they have competing ideas which must be eradicated.

I've never met a communistic professor. We have a small number of reconstructionists and a somewhat larger number of ameliorists among the professoriate, but chiefly professors stick to their specialized jobs and do not think in large political terms.

The limited number of so-called left-wing professors must by all means be protected!!! No haven remains in modern life for the critic of society except the professoriate. This fact must not be forgotten. If we're not all to become stodges, we must continue to support academic freedom. President Lowell, a conservative of conservatives, saw this and protected Laski. This was a brilliant performance making the job easier for other administrators in institutions with less prestige.

But the problem of academic freedom gets entangled with the problem of competence and, thus, with the question of academic tenure. Because of this jumbling of two issues, some poor professors (I mean poor in the sense of competence) keep their jobs because they're stirring up trouble and stay on because of the strength of the tradition of academic freedom. The AAUP has a job to do here, but it welches on it.

7. Religiously: Until the Civil War practically all professors were clergymen. The secularization of education killed this, and now few are clergymen except in religiously-controlled institutions. The typical professor today isn't much concerned with organized religion. In the sense of dedication he's a very religious man, but not in the sense of supporting the churches. Of these he's generally very critical. That is, if his specialized job allows him to think much about religion. How many professors go to the Stanford chapel regularly? How many to other churches? Not many.

8. Socially:

    8.1 Gregariousness: Discussed in Item 3.12.

    8.2 Adapting to the Opposite Sex: Most professors are married and so they've adapted. Professors wives have great influence, and they're generally of a rather different type than the wives of their predecessors. They get around socially more than faculty wives used to. This makes for more ties with the community.

9. Morally: Few professors get in trouble with the law or with Mrs. Grundy. But there have been and are exceptions. Cite the Webster murder at Harvard about 1850, the Snook murder at Ohio State, the imprisonment of President James Munroe Smith of Louisiana State University, the amatory amblings of Veblen, John B. Watson, W. I. Thomas. Professors today are much like other men -- no longer the third sex -- but in every moral realm they're way above the average -- as a group.

10. Spiritually: I've discussed this topic under Item 3.4, but I must give

considerably more attention to it here. The professoriate includes all varieties of men, and thus generalizations must be attempted gingerly. Two central tendencies, however, may be identified as characteristic of the profession: first, their devotion to their work, and second, their occupational diseases.

10.1 *Devotion to Their Work*: Since the fourth century before Christ the professor has been abroad in the western world either as individualistic teachers (like the sophists) or as members of communities like the Academy, the Lyceum, the Alexandrian and other museums, or modern colleges and universities. They have and continue to have two large functions: (1) attempting to understand the nature of the world and of man and (2) diffusing knowledge among youths and adults. In short, they are the chief producers of the Higher Learning and the chief distributors of the Higher Education.

In both these functional roles the great majority have been and continue to be devoted workers. Indeed, many of them are dedicated men and women who see in their work their chief reason for living. They are the prime examples of the doctrine that Josiah Royce preached in his great book *The Philosophy of Loyalty*, 1908. Thus they are spiritually integrated people.

Some examples: Averroes (1126-1198), the great Spanish-Arabian physician-philosopher who taught at Seville and Cordova and whose thought had fantastic influences on European thinking, is said to have taken only two evenings off from his work during all his life: the evening of his marriage and the evening of the day that his father died. Similarly, the great Louis Agazzig who came from Switzerland to Harvard in the 1840's is frequently quoted that he had no time to make money. Incidentally his son, Alexander Agazzig, made a huge fortune in copper mining early in life and then returned to Harvard to become one of the greatest zoologists of American history.

These dramatic examples might be many times multiplied, but they suffice to show the spiritual devotion and integration of the Academic Man, the Professorial Animal.

10.2 *His Vices*: Recall the French epigram that everyone has the defects, the vices, of his virtues. So also with the professor. We must review some of these vices:

10.21 *Intellectual Arrogance*: Paulsen, himself an important professor at the University of Belin, has described the professor as "a man who thinks otherwise," that is to say, a critic by nature. And he surely is! To be a critic is an important part of his business, but he can and often does overdo. He sees defects in the glib generalizations that most men accept as gospel, and often he tells his fellows what's wrong with their points of view -- and bluntly. The rancor of academic debates surpasses that of politicians and clergymen -- and that's an achievement! Reason for this: the professor's ideas are his EGO: his life focusses in his ideas, and he fights for them as does a lioness for her cubs. This often makes him both bitter and arrogant.

10.22 **Radicalism:** A good many professors see flaws in various parts of our social arrangements. This is good! A healthy society needs critics, needs them badly. Somehow free societies must arrange to give freedom to their critics; and in American life, the chief agency for freedom-for-critics is the professoriate. Thus President Lowell of Harvard (1909-1933), a Brahmin of Brahmins, fought for the right of Harold Laski to oppose the suppression of the Boston Police Strike of 1919 -- and even though Lowell vigorously disagreed with Laski's position.

Most professors, however, are not political radicals. Indeed, the average professor is a conservative, a specialist who sticks to his own last and fears to step over into realms of thought not within his professional ken. Thus the social scientists are the chief butts of criticism, but most social scientists are very conservative people.

10.23 **Felinity:** The professoriate has many of the characteristics of the feline species. This applied especially to professors who are sequestered, who have little to do with the common run of men. The proportions of sequestered professors diminishes, but plenty are still about. Canby in *Alma Mater*, 1936, p. 147 writes that he found "as much meanness, blacklisting, subterfuge, and cowardice [among professors] as in the outside world -- as much, nor more"; but he goes on to say that he found (during his 20 years at Yale) far more jealousy. Paulsen in *The German Universities and University Study*, 1906, pp. 171-88 writes at length about the felinity of professors and particularly emphasizes their arrogance and vanity. Plato in *The Republic* glorified the contemplative life but went on to observe that, living apart, academics tend to "become decidely queer, not to say rotten" and "useless to the world."

10.24 **Political Skills:** The professor's felinity makes him, in general, a clever and dangerous politician. Woodrow Wilson remarked, for example, that Washington politicians have a good deal to learn from academic politicians. And yet he is usually on the side of educational conservatism and uses his political skills to stand off change. Cite President Thompson and the class bells at OSU, etc.

Also cite the professors proclivity for talking, talking, talking. Cite Old Greek at Hamilton who suggested that his epitaph read "Died of Faculty Meetings." Talking, of course, is the business of a professor. Don't angle with him unless you talk well too -- and also know the tricks of dialectic as well as the best techniques of rhetoric.

10.3 **The Changing Professorial Type:** More and more the modern professor mingles actively in the life of the nation and especially with the practitioners of the art and science which he professes. Thus he becomes more and more like other men, and this in part accounts for his increased prestige. Socially he more and more resembles the men in other professions and business; and because of his specialized knowledge -- which becomes increasingly important -- he earns the respect and admiration of his fellows in other vocations.

This is good, but it has its dangers too. Dean Pound of the Harvard Law School pointed out in 1926 that the professor's function is to pull Philistia up to a higher level and not to sink to the level of Philistia. This is what I meant in Item 3.2 when I protested against singing songs in Rotary Clubs. Professors are important trustees of the highest achievements of civilization, and they must not be dragged down from this crucial function to too much hail-fellowship.

The problem here: how to continue to be a trustee of these highest elements of civilization and not be sequestered, snobbish, feline???

11. The Professor and the Personnel Worker: The typical professor does not like personnel workers. Erroneously he considers them to be upstarts; and, in any event, he doesn't like them because they make him conscious of his schizophrenia: his responsibility to both the advancing knowledge and to educating students. Since he is in general devoted to advancing knowledge but paid to teach, he dislikes the personnel worker since he represents an important facet of the philosophy that professors should be interested in students as people as well as students as minds. The professor prefers to concentrate upon the student's mind, and he dislikes the personnel worker because he thinks that he pushes him into being a nurse-maid for students.

But generalizations must be tempered here, and four types must be identified:

11.1 Old-Line Professors: By this designation I mean professors of the old-line verbal subjects as well as most professors in old-line institutions. I've largely described this type above.

11.2 New-Line Professors: Three types here:

11.21 Of Newer Subjects: Professors of agriculture, engineering, home economics, education, etc. have more interest in personnel work than old-line professors. They are also interested in improving instruction as witness the proceedings of the Land-Grant College Association. Personnel people in general find support from those professors.

11.22 In New-Type Institutions: Professors at such institutions as Antioch, Bennington, Sarah Lawrence, and Stephens are expected to be both teachers and personnel people; and thus they accept personnel people. I shall later discuss the relationship of SPW to instruction, and there I'll give more attention to the point of view of these new-type institutions.

11.23 Rangey Professors: The late Dean Herbert E. Hawkes of Columbia (long a professor of mathematics), President James B. Conant of Harvard (long a chemist), and others like them have seen the importance and inevitability of SPW; and their tribe increases in number.

SPW people must deal with all four of these varieties of professors. In general SPW improves in status among professors, but many diehards hold out. To win them over requires understanding of the professoriate in general.

Sixth Lecture

The American College Administrator

Introduction: Personnel workers in higher education deal not only with students and professors but also with administrators; and, since the future of personnel work depends upon the opinions held by administrators, these potent poeple need to be described as a class. In my course on the Government and Administration of Higher Education (now two courses) I devote four two hour lectures to the college presidency alone, but in this course I can obviously only touch high spots. I shall discuss three topics: the presidency, the deanship, and functional administration.

1. The Presidency:

1.1 An Ancient Name: Comes from the Latin word praeses, the title of the governors of provinces. In line with this history of the word several American states originally called their governors presidents including Delaware, New Hampshire, South Carolina.

1.2 An Ancient Function: The Greeks employed a different name for the heads of their schools of philosophy, that is, for the heads of their counterparts of our universities. The name was scholarch meaning first scholar. Scholarchs directed the affairs of the Hellenic and Hellenistic higher schools which, incidentally, often resembled modern universities in that they had endowments, buildings, permanent staffs, and even coeducation.

1.3 The Medieval Universities: Their heads called rectors or chancellors, the former coming from municipal government in Italy and the latter from the Church. In the Italian universities the rectors for some centuries were always students, not members of the faculty. But the governmental power passed to the political authorities. The myth has persisted, however, that the faculties governed themselves because in time they elected new rectors annually. Yet behind the scenes stood the central political power of the state. This myth has made for all sorts of controversies today and especially for the attempt of a group of professors early in this century to do away with both presidents and boards of trustees. This movement led by J. McK. Cattell, Thorstein Veblen, and A.O.Lovejoy. It resulted in the formation in 1915 of the American Association of University Professors. See the Rabe dissertation which might well be renamed "Are Presidents Necessary?"

1.4 The Modern Title: Seven of the nine colonial colleges called the head professor "the president," but the University of Virginia used the name of rector, and Pennsylvania used the name of provost. The same situation continues to this day; and now the chief administrator officer of a college or university may be called by one of seven names: president, chancellor, provost, rector, dean, principal, or director. The first the most common by far. The new office of chancellor being established above the presidency. Cite M.I.T. twenty years ago and Chicago today.

1.5 Institutions Without Presidents: Following continental precedents three American institutions have operated over long periods without presidents, that is, under the control of faculty committees: the University of Virginia from 1825 to 1904, Michigan from 1819 to 1852, and Cal Tech from about 1920 to 1946. All these experiments failed: all have presidents today.

1.6 The Functions of the Presidency:

1.61 Governmental: Usually the president serves on the board of trustees with vote. Several strong institutions make the president the chairman of the board: Harvard and Dartmouth for example. Some presidents meet with the board by right but have no vote. In any event, the president is the link between the government and the administration of higher education.

1.62 Administrative: The president administers the governmental power of the board and of the faculty. Incidentally, the faculty has been acquiring considerably more governmental power during the past seventy-five years. The president, as executive, administers the power given him from the legislative and judicial source of which he is a part. That is, he is frequently a member of both the board of trustees and of the faculty.

1.63 Leadership: Some presidents (like Rightmire of OSU) conceive of their responsibilities as being limited to that of being agents for the board or the faculty or both. Strong presidents refuse to function in this limited fashion. They are the leaders of their boards and their faculties. This seems to me to be most desirable because I know of no institution that has moved ahead except under the leadership of a strong president. Cite Harvard as opposed to Yale as one of many examples.

1.64 Development Versus Operations: When institutions are small a president could be both an operational and a developmental officer. This now becoming very difficult if not impossible. Thus at Harvard, Chicago, and Stanford the president (or chancellor at Chicago) is becoming a developmental officer supported by a chief operational officer under him. This proved a necessary development in the military and in business and industry. It becomes an urgent need in higher education too. See my article of July 1947 in the J. Amer. Assoc. Col. Registrars.

1.7 The Extensive Range of Presidential Responsibilities: In my paper just cited I wrote: "The college president must deal with a greater range of problems and a wider variety of kinds of people than perhaps any other executive in modern life. He must be an educator, a businessman, a public speaker, a writer, a money-raiser, a politician, a giver of dinners, a charmer at receptions, a learned commentator on world affairs, and popular with students, alumni, and the general public. No wonder that he has been described, on the one hand, as a man who makes compromises for a living and, on the other, as a power-drunk dictator. No wonder he has been compared with a rag doll -- and because both are said to lie naturally in any position."

I once made a list of seventeen different publics with which the college president must deal -- each substantially different from the others. I haven't the list at hand, but here are some of them:

Prospective student and their parents
Students
Alumni
Faculty
Administration Officers
The Board
The "learned world
The people of the community
The monied public
The pressure groups
The governmental agencies
The crackpots and cranks
Editors
Clergymen

1.8 Political Skill the Essential Element Today: The college president today must have many abilities, must be one of the most versatile of men. But above all else he must be a skilled politician. I mean this in the best sense: he must have a highly developed sense of manoever. He must be like a general plotting and conducting a campaign in the field knowing where the power has shifted from this moment to that. Thus he must be a skillful negotiator at the conference table and a charmer in his office. [In brief, he must be an artist in human relations.] He can no longer be a dictator. He can no longer be a scholar as were Walker of M.I.T., McCosh of Princeton, Harper of Chicago. He must specialize in handling people as individuals and as groups.

1.9 But Political Skill Must Be Toward A Clear End: Most presidents have a clear end: the advancement of their institutions. But this is not enough: he must also have an educational end. Few administrators today have such ends. We have a sparsity of educational leadership. The days of Gilman, Eliot, White, Harper, et al seem to be over. Today but two national leaders in education among college presidents: Hutchins and Conant. This too bad. Perhaps the development of the developmental function will produce more outstanding leadership.

2. The Dean: An ancient name coming from Roman military structure. The dean a sort of corporal or sergeant: the head of ten. Came into both religion and education in the Middle Ages.

2.1 American History of the Title and Office: The heads of professional schools took this name. The first seems to have been Samuel Bard, the head of the medical school founded in New York and associated with Kings College, the original name of Columbia. See my article "The Disappearing Dean of Men."

2.2 The First Academic Dean Appointed 1870: President Eliot at Harvard appointed Professor E. V. Gurney the first Dean of Harvard College in January, 1870. He was a combination dean of instruction and of students -- and also taught part-time. This deanship split into two in 1890. Thus the first college dean in the United States largely a personnel officer. See the article of mine cited above.

2.3 The Spread of the Office: The growth of American higher education made the appointment of more administrative officers imperative, and today every institution has at least one dean. Some have as many as a score. The title, however, has lost its uniqueness, and many different kinds of functions come under the review of men with the title of dean. Thus we have several kinds of deans:

2.31 Heads of Colleges and Schools.

2.32 Chief operational officer next to the president: dean of administration the usual title.

2.33 Major officer in instructional and research administration: dean of the faculty or of faculties, dean of instruction, etc.

2.34 Dean of students responsible for the coordination of all student personnel services as at Chicago, Stanford, etc.

2.35 Deans of men and women.

2.36 Deans of Residents.

2.37 Dean of the College responsible for both instruction and student personnel services.

2.38 Dean of the alumni: Laing at Chicago.

2.4 No Standard Pattern: No two institutions resemble one another exactly -- or even closely. Each has its own traditions, history, problems, and personalities. Thus no standard dean exists. Whatever the pattern at a particular institution, however, the deans must be reckoned with. Often they wield great power.

3. Functional Administration: When institutions of higher education were all small and the educational process remained relatively simple, the president could and did handle all or most of the administering. When Eliot took over at Harvard in 1869, for example, he found three other administrative officers at work: the stewart, the regent, and the registrar. Growth in size and complexity has produced a multiplication of administrative officers. At first these appeared upon the scene helter skelter, but in recent decades these officers have been organized into clusters under what has come to be called "functional administration." That is to say, officers performing associated functions have been organized into functional units. The plan came from the military and from business and industry. Today the following functional areas have emerged:

3.1 Instruction and Research: Sometimes research is separated from instruction in part with the dean of the graduate school chiefly interested in research. Often headed by a vice president today.

3.2 Student Personnel: A vice president at Ohio State and a few other institutions, a Dean of Students at Minnesota and elsewhere.

3.3 Business Affairs: A vice president at Michigan, Minnesota, O.S.U., Chicago, etc.

3.4 Public Relations: This the least developed. I know of no institution which combines all public relations (including alumni relations) under one major administrative officer, but the day seems soon to be coming when such an officer will appear.

Above these line-funcational officers has appeared a centralized operational staff assisting the president or standing between the president and the line staff. Stanford an illustration of the former. The assistant to the president at many institutions the example of the latter.

Functional administration is the most important administrative development of recent decades. Size and complexity have made it inevitable! Personnel people must know of its inevitability and its potency! They must deal with administrative officers in other areas in terms of functional alignments, and thus they must know why funcational administration has developed and how it works.

4. The Personal Characteristics of Educational Administators Today: In the preceding lectures on the student and the college professor I have given major attention to the personal characteristics of both, but in this lecture I have chosen to describe administrative officers functionally rather than personally. Yet a few observations of the latter score must be made. Of course administrators differ widely in their personal characteristics -- as do students and professors too -- but a few generalizations may be made:

4.1 Interest in the Intellectual Enterprise: In general administrators have been forced to become so much interested in the machinery of keeping institutions operating that they have little time to be concerned about the intellectual enterprise as such. They make the endeavor possible by their work, but they can give little thought to it. Faculty members often complain about this bitterly. They assert that the means has become more important than the end. Often this criticism seems to me to be merited.

4.2 Interest in Students as Groups and Individuals: The same criticism applies here. By "groups" of course, I mean student organizations. Students as individuals frequently become numbers on file cards and folders to the administrator. Many administrators, in fact, seldom see an individual student, and thus they grow callous to his throbbing reality. This is even true of some of the high brass in personnel administration.

4.3 The Danger of Mechanics Predominating: Administrators clearly need routines in order to get their work done, but these routines often interfere with dealing fairly or wisely with individuals. The dangers here seem to me to be:

4.31 Impersonalism: The routines come first, the individual second. A frequent complaint made against registrars, business manager, librarians, and often student personnel workers. The faculty often impersonal too but for a different reason: they are interested in their subjects rather than in students as individuals. But administrative impersonalism seems to me to be just as bad.

4.32 Efficiency: When an administrator has worked out a smooth mechanism for getting his work done, he doesn't like to see it disorganized by "exceptions." These exceptions make extra work for him, and usually he is overloaded, overworked. Thus he insists upon the efficiency of his administrative mechanism rather than efficiency in dealing with individuals. The issue here is not efficiency versus inefficiency but one kind of efficiency versus another kind.

4.33 Giantism: Impersonalism and mechanical efficiency seem inevitable in large organizations be they educational,commercial, or governmental. Modern society has generally come to suffer from elephantiasis, and no one seems to know the cure. Can we return to small units? Mr. Justic Brandies said yes. Baker Brownell of Northwestern in his reasearches in Montana said yes. The small colleges assert that they do better jobs than large universities. The Lincoln Electric Company has demonstrated that a small business can out-sell, out-smart, out-research the big electrical companies. But we are a long way from a solution for giantism and elephantiasis. This one of the big problems of our age! It affects everything: government, business, education, community living. What will the answer be????

4.34 Uniformity: Impersonalism, efficiency, giantism all push people toward uniformity, toward being as alike as coat hangers. Uniformity influences thought as well as other kinds of behavior. Thus the mass press makes us much alike. And in the sense of being mediocre, that is average. This reduces status differences and lifts the masses, but it truncates the peaks! And we need peaks. My preference for the term "the average man" rather than the terms "the common man." The former implies a range, the latter a dead level of sameness. Uniformity troubles all sensitive men today. What is the answer?

One answer is that personnel people must counteract impersonalism, efficiency, giantism. To substitute personal interest in individuals has been, in fact, one of the chief reasons for their appointment. Thus they must fight the dangerous tendencies in themselves.

6. Bibliography of Books on Administration:

Chester I. Barnard, The Functions of the Executive, 1938.
In my judgment this is the most important book about administration in any field ever written. Barnard was and is President of the New Jersey Bell Telephone Company, but he is a thinker of first rank. Unfortunately the book is poorly written, and its very difficult, but its conceptions are powerful and of huge importance.

Elton Mayo, The Social Problems of an Industrial Civilization, 1945.
Also a very important book about administration in general and strong, too, for SPW. It's much shorter than Barnard and better written. Mayo makes clear some of Barnard's difficult points particularly the emphasis upon the administrator as first of all a communicator.

E. Urwick, The Elements of Administration, 1948.
Like Mayo, Urwick is a Britisher, and I understand his book is very important although as yet I haven't read it. In general the British have done more fundamental work on administration than we have as witness the writings of Sheldon, Mary Follett (an American who lived for many years in England), and young Whitehead, the son of a philosopher, Alfred North Whitehead.

No good book has yet been written -- to my knowledge -- on the administration of American higher education, but among the best now available is A. Lawrence Lowell's book of his last years: What a University President Has Learned.

Two important controversial books about both the government and administration of higher education are:

James McKeen Cattell, University Control, 1913.

Thorstein Veblen, The Higher Learning in America, 1918.

Seventh Lecture

Student Personnel Workers

Introduction: I've described students, faculty members and administrators. Now we must have a look at personnel workers themselves. Obviously they differ as individuals, but it's my belief that they can be classified into four major types with each type having central tendencies. I've described the last three of these types in my 1940 article "The History and Philosophy of Student Personnel Work." See the bibliography. Summarizing and bringing that discussion up to date, the central tendencies of the four types seem to me to be as follows:

1. The Humanitarians: I've already scotched the widely held notion that SPW began about 1920 in colleges and universities and I've presented the evidence to show that medieval universities had personnel officers. I've also described the personnel work of the professors of the Old American College. Similarly I've cited the personnel officers of these early American institutions holding such titles as Steward, Patron, Proctor, etc.

   As American colleges and universities increased in size after the Civil War -- especially under the impact of the Land-Grant College Act of 1862 -- the need for personalizing student relations became clear to a growing number of people. These sensitive-minded men and women objected to the growing impersonalism, and they attempted as presidents and professors to do something about the situation. In short, they added a personal interest in students to their other duties.

   I call these men and women humanitarians because it seems to me that by and large they were in the tradition of the great humanitarian movement that swept this country during the first half of the 19th century under the leadership of the Unitarians especially. The humanitarian movement deserves considerably more attention than I can here give it, but this much can be said: 1) the humanitarians, taking thier roots from the English and French deists and from the French and German romanticists, held that men should be concerned with this world and not with the next and that therefore they should set out improving this worldly institutions; 2) in the United States the great humanitarian leaders were William Ellery Channing, William Lloyd Garrison, Ralph Waldo Emerson, Horace Greeley, Thomas Wentworth Higginson, Dorothea Dix, Amos Bronson Alcott, et al, et al; 3) these men and women set out to reform everything about American life and furnish the leadership for prison reform, education of the blind, the deaf, and female, the elimination of imprisonment for debt, the development of public education on all levels, the Lyceum movement of adult education, peace societies, temperance, etc., etc.

   The humanitarian movement reached into the colleges vigorously and impelled not a few administrators and professors to combat German impersonalism and to give their time to helping students with their problems -- students as individuals and in groups.

The first student personnel officers to appear on the scene *as such* came from these humanitarins -- or came from them by and large. They included the first deans of men and women, the first placement officers, the first vocational counselors, the first people to help students find part-time employment, etc.

The humanitarian movement as it operated in society at large had two main divisions: 1) the non-religious groups, and 2) the religionists; and this bifurcation continued in the colleges, although the latter group predominated. In society in general the non-religious humanitarians gave the country Horace Greeley, Horace Mann, William Lloyd Garrison, Wendell Phillips, et al; and the religious groups, with less famous leaders, culminated in the proponents of the Social Gospel made so prominent during the first quarter of this century by Walter Rauschenbusch. See his books *Christianity and the Social Crisis*, 1907, *A Theology for the Social Gospel*, 1917, etc. Also see Chapters 15 and 16 of Gabriel's *The Course of American Democratic Thought*, 1940; Vol. II, Parts II-IV of Parrington's *Main Currents of American Thought*, 1927; andMerti's *The Growth of American Thoughts*, 1943, especially Chapters 5, 7, and 24.

The religious humanitarisn, as observed, were the more important in the colleges; and they used as one of their chief agencies the YMCA and later the YWCA. These organizations undertook much of the present day personnel work, and colleges and universities in time took over the responsibility for the functions they had initiated or revived from neglect.

But many of the first deans of men and women were humanitarians in the non-religious sense including Dean Le Baron Russell Briggs at Harvard and Dear Thomas Arkle Clark at the University of Illinois.

I've probably said enough about the humanitarian group among personnel workers; but two additional and concluding points must be made: 1) that although the humanitarian movement as such has run its course, many present-day personnel people continue in this tradition, and 2) the chief current representatives of the group hold positions as deans of men, deans of women, religious conselors, residence counselors, etc.

2. *The Scientists*: This potent groups came into SPW as the result of the measurement movement in psychology which came to first fruition during the First World War. The testers proved so important in that war that they found berths in colleges and universities and also in industry when the war ended. Thus the scientiest among SPW people took charge of the enterprise beginning about 1920, and they have been the most powerful and most articulate group ever since.

The humanitarians have the limitation of being sloppy in their thinking, but the scientists have the limitation of often being too cold in their approaches to SPW and to students as individuals. Also the scientists are cocky because of their sharp tools -- sharper at least than those of humanitarians. This cockiness annoys the other two types of personnel people. They need more of the humanitarian point of view; and, of course, the humanitarians need more of the scientific point of view.

3. *To Administrators*: The rapid and extensive development of SPW created many new posts, many new functions requiring administration. Thus in the late 'Twenties and ever since a large number of people have come into SPW neither from humanitarian nor scientific backgrounds. These people are just *administrators* who pride themselves (often erroneously) on being able to administer anything. In general they think of SPW as just another administrative job, and this limited point of view does not make them popular either with the humanitarians or the scientists. Both criticize them for being deficient in their points of strength. And, as I see it, other groups of critics are right.

   The prevailing opinion that an able administrator can administer anything seems to me to be open to considerable doubt. *The administrator must know and feel that which he administers*. He must be more than a mere manipulator of men and materials. He must be a *student* of the activities, the functions, that he administers.

   To be specific: can Eisenhower be a good educational administrator at Columbia? Clearly he has been a brilliant military and political administrator, but what about administering a university? My thesis is that he can transfer his administrative skills but that he will require a long time to develope the necessary *educational knowledge and attitudes* that the Columbia job requires. But he's on the verge of sixty years of age (born 1890), and can he acquire such knowledge and attitudes before he retires or gets too old to be of much use? Personally, I doubt it; but, then, Columbia seems to want him cheifly to be a money raiser.

   Many individuals move over into student personnel administration who have administrative *skills* but who have grossly inadequate *knowledge* of SPW, and sorry attitudes about it. These men in my judgment do SPW great harm.

4. *The Clinicians*: In the past decade or so a fourth variety of student personnel worker has appeared upon the scene and become very important and, indeed, the cock of the walk. I mean the clinician, the psychologically trained counselor. Some of these men are trained as scientists, but many more are currently being trained to be sensitives, that is, men and women who "feel" the needs of students intuitively. Because of the popularity of psychoanalysis and of Carl Rogers, these non-scientific clinicians have become quite numerous and immensely vocal.

   We shall discuss non-directive counseling in a later lecture. Here it suffices to remark that by and large the Rogerians and their associates deplore the use and validity of psychological tests. Of course measurements of many sorts must be employed to aid in counseling; and, in my judgment, they will soon be widely used even by the Rogerians. Yet Rogers has done a great service in criticizing testing as the end in itself that often it became. In short, Rogers must be seen as the critic of the situation that he found, but a critic who went too far with his proposals for reform. In time the two points of view will amalgamate somewhere between either extreme.

5. *The Need of Blending These Four Types into a New Comprehensive Type*: The four groups just described all have qualities of high importance for the development of SPW. But their strong points should be blended into a new amalgam SPW person.

This new type personnelist would have the vigorous social motivations of the humanitarians, the scientific training and skills of the scientists, the administrative know-how of the administrator and the skills of the clinician. These four strains should be cross-bred!!

6. How to Cross-Breed: We shall make no progress in the necessary cross breeding of personalists until we establish training schools for college and university personnel workers, schools which combine the four points of view and which have on their faculties strong representatives of each of them.

These faculty members will row a bit, but eventually they will reach common ground, and that will lead to the production of the new type worker that seems to me to be so urgently needed for the development of SPW.

Unfortunately, I see a few signs on the horizon that we shall soon be getting such a rangy training program for personnelists. Teachers' College at Columbia seems to me to be essentially dominated by the humanitarian point of view, Minnesota by the scientific doctrine, and Ohio State by the administrative, and Chicago by the clinical. Not one of these institutions is strictly one thing or the other, but the central tendencies seem to me to be as I've described them.

In my judgement some university ought to set up a full-scale school of personnel administration with strong representatives of all four points of view. A tremendous opportunity awaits the vision and leadership of some university president who would become famous currently and in the future for doing what so obviously needs to be done.

This proposed school, by the way, might also include training in industrial and governmental personnel work. Divisions would have to be set up for various types of personnel people in terms of their career plans, but SPW people could learn much (and teach much) in the intercommunication of all varieties of personnel people in a single but strong personnel training school of university rank.

Student Personnel Services in American Higher Education

Part Three

Relations With and Services for Students as Individuals

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Eighth Lecture

Admissions

Introduction: For the student admission to a college or university is a very personal matter: he is accepted or rejected as an individual. From the point of view of the institutions, however, the admission of students constitutes a maintenance operation: it requires students to continue to function. Thus admissions can be classified as a service to individuals or as an institutional maintenance operation. Both plans can be defended, but in this course we consider admissions along with other personnel services for students as individuals.

The topic is huge! As yet, however, no definitive book has been written about it. One badly needs to be written, and someone ought to make this field his life work -- become the national authority on it in all its ramifications and produce periodic volumes to guide the thinking of the rest of us.

Meanwhile an abundant literature of monographs and articles has developed. We can do little more in this lecture than to give a swift survey of the terrain in the spirit of critical continuism.

We must begin by discussing changing ways of getting prepared for college work. We'll then proceed to discuss the Achievement Principle which once dominated admissions and which, some of us hope, will eventually come into its own again. We must then identify historic eras of admission in terms of required subjects and of the methods employed to determine fitness for college work. Finally we'll discuss a number of current issues.

1. Historic Methods of Preparing for College: In his address before the N.E.A. in 1874 (Proceedings, p. 43) President Noah Porter of Yale remarked:

> A large number... of the students in New England, and, indeed, in all the American colleges before the present century, were prepared by clergymen and private teachers.... now and then a poor clergyman, and here and there, an eminent Scotch and Irish classicists, gave excellent instruction.

Porter correctly reported the situation as witness the following:

> Jefferson prepared for William and Mary with the Rev. James Maury.
> Madison prepared for Princeton under Donald Robertson and the Rev. Thomas Martin.
> Alexander Hamilton was prepared for Columbia (King's) College by the clergyman in the West Indies island where he was born.

Indeed, the most common method of preparation for college in the 18th century and the first half of the 19th was by tutoring. This method continued well after the Civil War and, for example, Barrett Wendell of the Harvard Class of 1877 entered college by this preparatory route.

With the rise and development of the academies and then of high schools, this method slowly waned. But it must be emphasized that neither of these institutions was essentially a college preparatory undertaking. The academies were generally substitutes for colleges, and as late as 1894 the NEA Committee of Ten pointed out with supporting statistics that high schools were not college preparatory schools.

But even as the Committee of Ten wrote its famous report, the trend toward college had begun, and the Committee under the vigorous chairmanship of President Charles W. Eliot of Harvard helped along the development by holding that subjects good for college preparation were also good for preparing the life. Thus began the stranglehold of the colleges upon the secondary schools about which so much has been written. But the point to remember is this: the stranglehold began with the work of the famous Committee of Ten of 1894, appointed 1892.

We cannot stop to trace the development of this control-from-above except to review these high points: 1) The Committee of Thirteen of the NEA in 1899 (proper name: The Committee on College Entrance Requirements) moved in the direction of harmonizing college preparation and secondary school work by moving in the direction of what later became known as the Carnegie Unit, and 2) the Carnegie Unit was finally established in 1909 when the National Conference Committee of the Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools formulated and circulaized a definition of high school instruction which the Carnegie Foundation adopted as its own. (See George Morgan's masters thesis, 1948, p. 1).

I shall later review the rise of the methods of examining for college entrance, but here I've written enough to show the swing from individualized instruction by tutors to mass instruction in schools which specifically prepared students for college and which, in the process, brought secondary education (but not until late in the 19th century) under the dominance of the colleges.

2. The Achievement Principle Before the Civil War: Today most college students enter the freshman class, and thus we assume that this has always been so. But such an opinion is a gross error. Before the Civil War (and after, too) a substantial percentage of students entered with what today we call advanced standing. Here are some examples:

> Longfellow entered Bowdoin as a sophomore directly from work with a private tutor. DAB 11:382.8.
>
> Eliphalet Nott entered Brown at 22 years of age and was admitted immediately to candidacy for the M.A. without ever having studied for an A.B. DAB 13:580.6.
>
> Alexis F. Lange got his A.B. and his M.A. in three years at the University of Michigan well after the Civil War. Lange F-2, 2.3.
>
> Samuel S. Smith who was President of Princeton 1795-1812 entered Princeton at sixteen years of age as a junior. DAB 17:344.5.

These are but random examples. The achievement principle operated all over the country. It gave way because of the standardizing results of the Carnegie Unit and other accreditation programs. Yet it must be reported that the Committee of Thirteen attempted to save it. The seventh of its resolutions recommended that credit in college for advanced work in secondary schools be given, and its ninth resolution proposed that students be allowed to finish college in less than the usual four years depending upon their individual achievements. See *NEA Proceedings*, 1899, pp. 656-70.

The achievement principle has been honored continously by a number of Eastern institutions, and at Yale about 15 years ago more than half of the freshman class took advanced work because of higher preparation than freshman work required. Meanwhile the University of Chicago has adopted the Achievement Principle for all its undergraduate work as well as for admissions. More of this later. Enough for the time being to point to its deep roots in our educational history.

3. *History of Required Subjects for Admission*: This history can be broken down into several periods as follows:

3.1 *The Classical Period, 1642-1734*: The first Harvard educational statutes were published in 1642 and included this statement about college admission:

> "When any Schollar is able to read Tully or such like classical Latin Author extempore , and make a speake true Latin in verse and prose, without assistance, and define perfectly the paradigms of nounes and verbs in yet Greeke tongue, nor shall any claime admission before such qualifications." CyE 2:93.3.

3.2 *Transition Period, 1734-1870*: In 1734 Harvard dropped its "speaking knowledge of Latin" for admission, and soon thereafter arithmetic and other subjects began to be required along with the classical languages. Here are some of the decisive dates:

1745: Yale added "common *arithmetic*." Cy E 2:98.5 Princeton followed in 1748, Columbia in 1755, and later Harvard joined along with the other new colleges being established.

1807: Harvard required *geography* followed by Princeton in 1819, Columbia in 1841, Yale in 1822. Cy E. 2:98.8.

1819: Princeton required *English grammar* followed by Yale in 1822 and other colleges soon thereafter. Ibid 2:98.9.

1820: Harvard required *algebra* followed by Columbia in 1821, Yale in 1846, and Princeton in 1848. Ibid 2:98.910.

These developments affected the newer institutions of the Middle West, and thus Michigan opened in 1841 with the full array of requirements developed in the East. Ibid 2:98.10f.

3.3 *Period of Emphasis Upon the Sciences and Social Sciences, Modern Languages, 1870-99*: The date of 1870 is rough here, but it shows the central tendency in the admission of the sciences and social sciences as entrance requirements:

History: Harvard and Michigan 1847, Cornell at its opening in 1868.

Physical Geography: Harvard and Michigan 1870.

French or German: One or the other required by Harvard beginning in 1870. By 1897, 60 of 432 colleges required a modern language for admission; but the classical languages continued to dominate since in that year 402 of 432 colleges required Latin and 318 required Greek. Cy E. 2:99.13.

English: In 1874 Harvard required both English composition and literature for admission. Eliot's work here led to the establishment of standardized examining in English for the New England colleges, and this in turn led to the Committee of Ten, the regional accrediting associations, the College Entrance Examination Board. See the George Morgan thesis already cited.

Science: No dates available, but the emphasis here began about 1870. See Cy E 2:106.48. I'd welcome student help here!

3.4 Period of Standardization, 1899-1930: This was the period of the dominance of the Carnegie Unit and of the accreditation associations which employed it. Now, of course, the unit method of admissions continue to be the major method of admission, but in 1938 appeared the Carnegie Foundation bulletin, The Student and His Knowledge, written by Learned and Wood and deploring the standardization that the Carnegie Unit had fastened upon the country. In short, the Carnegie Foundation which had so emphatically sponsored the unit, now became its severest critic.

But the Learned and Wood book was but one of many attacks upon standardization. Others were:

3.41 The "New Plan" at Harvard Beginning 1911: This new plan of admissions at Harvard abandoned the piling up of credits and made it possible for students to take examinations in four representative subjects -- at one session. Thus the credit concept early came under attack. Hamilton College Survey, Vol 1:100. Also Morgan's thesis. (Princeton adopted in 1912-13, Yale a bit later. See Harvard, Gardiner 129.5).

3.42 The Dartmouth Plan of 1934: Beginning with the Class of 1938 (admitted 1934) Dartmouth waived all units and required only that candidates "shall have presented evidence satisfactory to the Committee on Admission that they are competent to carry on their course of study at Dartmouth College." Ibid, p. 101. Colgate adopted much the same plan in 1935 and Hamilton College in 1940. Scores of institutions have followed including Chicago, Columbia.

3.42 The Eight Year Study: In the early 1930's the Progressive Education Association established its Commission on the Relation of School and College which with foundation funds financed The Eight Year Study to determine whether or not the progressive school graduates who had not submitted to old-type unit preparation for college did as well as the graduate of schools who prepared specifically for examination in "unit" subjects. The study proved that the progressive school graduates did as well academically as old-type students and better in the extracurriculum and in range of social and extra-intellectual interests.

3.5 The Present Transition Period: The events described in the last item make it clear that we are currently in a transition period, in a period that seems to be leading to a slow return to the Achievement Principle of the pre-Civil War Period.

We shall have more to say about this under the next topic, but for the present this point must be emphasized: we have been discussing the subjects of study required for admission, and we have traced the continuum from stress upon the classics alone, to the piling up of credits in an increasing number of subjects in preparatory school, and finally to despair with the method of fragmentary units to emphasis upon general preparation rather than preparation in specific subjects.

In short, we've been discussing subjects required for admission rather than the methods of determing fitness in subjects.

4. Methods of Determining Fitness of Preparation: Every method of determining fitness amounts to a method of examining a student's ability to do college work. But methods of such examination have varied, and we must identify them.

4.1 The Oral Examination 1636-1871: The old method of examination was oral. A student presented himself for admission, and the President and the professors in each subject examined him in their studies. At first the President probably did most of this examining, but then individual professors in Greek, say, read Greek with the applicant to determine his fitness in that subject. So with Latin, etc. Later it seems that the task of examining candidates got assigned to faculty committees. In any event, examinations were oral.

4.2 The Credential Method: James Burrill Angell, President of the University of Michigan, established this method in 1871 to replace any type of college examination. Angell sought to mesh the schools of Michigan with the state university, and thus he did not want the university to sit as arbiter of the schools. Rather, he believed that the university should help the schools to improve their work and thus to prepare students adequately. This point of view led him to get his credentials method adopted, and it amounted to this: The University of Michigan 1)set up a list of accredited high schools all of whose graduates it would accept if the schools recommended them, and 2) established a method of school visitation by means of which the University a) determined which schools should be accredited, and b) help the schools to improve their work from the point of view of preparing students for college.

Angell was a very wise man, and his credentials method helped knit the schools and the University of Michigan into a happy relationship. Moreover, Angell thus initiated the accreditation movement.

4.3 The Written Examination Method: Individual Institutions: I don't know when the first American college required a written examination for admission, but it must have been after 1855 when Chas. W. Eliot and James Peirce, two Harvard tutors, gave the first written examination in the history of American higher education. See the Henry James biography of Eliot 1:68. In 1924 Eliot reviewed the history of examinations at Harvard, and among other things he reported that medical students at Harvard in 1870 wrote so badly and so ignorantly that it wasn't possible to examine them for admission to the Harvard Medical School. PN 209.417.

A job needs to be done here on the history of written examinations for college admissions. Undoubtedly the facts have been collected at least randomly, but some student might write a paper bringing these miscellaneous facts together.

4.4 Cooperative Written Examinations:

4.41 The First -- In English: In December, 1879 Eliot organized a conference of New England colleges to discuss a cooperative entrance examination in English. All the New England colleges agreed to join forces -- except Yale. The plan went into effect in 1882 with requirements for examination in both composition and literature. See Morgan, p. 7ff.

4.42 The Rise of Regional Examination Groups: Pennsylvania in 1877, Southern states in 1895, North Central Association in 1892, etc. These groups dropped examinations early and went into accreditation plans after the pattern of the University of Michigan.

4.43 The College Entrance Examination Board: Proposed by Eliot in 1888 (Morgan, pp. 8-9.) Date of 1877 given for Eliot proposal in Ency of Modern Education, p. 153.5. The CEEB got under way in 1900 after a specific proposal by N. M. Butler the previous year. It gave its first examinations in 1902. Ibid, 153.56.

4.5 The Development of Scholastic Aptitude Examinations: Because of the intelligence testing experiences of the First World War, colleges began about 1920 to employ scholastic aptitude tests: the Thordike, the ACE (Thurstone), the OSU (Toops), etc. In 1926 the CEEB gave its first examination of this type. Now it moves very actively here and gives more emphasis to scholastic aptitude than, possibly, on subject matter or achievement examinations.

5. The Meshing of Subject-Matter Requirements and Methods of Examination: Currently these two historic trends mesh, join. The big and important features of college entrance appraisal today seems to me to be:

    1. Performance on scholastic aptitude examinations.

    2. Grades in secondary school.

    3. Recommendations of principal and teachers and counselors.

    Many, many studies indicate that the combination of these three factors gives the best predictive value of college success.

    Incidentally some student might well work out a selective bibliography here. My Hamilton College Survey, Volume One would be helpful here.

6. The Problem of Admission to Graduate and Professional Schools:

    6.1 Professional Schools: I've never worked up this topic. Need help here.

    6.2 Graduate Schools: Generally nothing required but graduation from an accredited college, but during the past 15 years the Carnegie Foundation, working with deans of graduate schools in the East, has promoted and developed The Graduate Record Examinations. VERY IMPORTANT development.

    For review of this enterprise see K. W. Vaugh's article "The Graduate Record Examinations" in Educational and Psychological Measurement, 1947. pp. 745-56. I'd welcome briefs and digest of this and related articles.

7. Trends Forward: We seem clearly to be in a transitional period between the strict subject-matter requirements of the last period and the flexible, Achievement Principle Plan of the recent past. Many signs of this, and the recent coordination of entrance and examination agencies under the leadership of the Carnegie Foundation (by a committee headed by Conant) promises much here. See work of USAFI too.

    Personally I am sold on the desirability of the Achievement Principle, but this I must add: the Achievement Principle does not lead to college admission for anyone of high ability regardless of his previous training. Some Jacksonian democrats want this, but in general colleges must insist upon the right kind of preparation for their work. Yet the trend is toward flexibility rather than time-serving.

    In general, we have made much progress in admission philosophy and technique. What we need now is a definitive volume. Personnel workers -- and general administrators too -- need one badly.

Topic Nine

Appraising the Individual Student

Introduction: In two addresses delivered in the year 1899, President William Rainey Harper of the University of Chicago proposed that every college should make a "scientific study" of every student at or soon after admission. The first of these addresses he delivered before the Regents of the University of the State of New York on June 27, 1899, and he entitled it, "Waste in Education." Among other types of waste he discussed the wastage of human resources. He said on this point:

> "There should be a diagnosis of each student, in order to discover his capacities, his tastes, his tendencies, his weaknesses, and his defects; and upon the basis of such diagnosis his course of study should be arranged." See the full statement in The Trend in Higher Education, p. 94.34.

Five months later Harper devoted a full address to his proposal. He delivered it at the inauguration of President W.H.P. Faunce as President of Brown University, and he entitled it "The Scientific Study of the Student." Putting on the mantle of prophecy, Harper said:

> "In the time that is coming provision must be made, either by the regular instructors or by those appointed especially for the purpose, to study in detail the man or woman to whom instruction is offered." Op. cit., p. 321.3.

Harper went on to specify in detail the elements of the study that should be made of individual students. He included the following: analyses of 1) his character, 2) his intellectual capacity, 3) his work habits, 4) his special capacities and tastes, and 5) "the social side of his nature." In introducing these five elements he cited -- and therefore included -- 6) a complete physical check-up.

Harper's prophecies are now coming true, and in this lecture we discuss what is now being done to make them true.

1. Definition: Harper used the term "diagnosis," and many continue to use it, but I prefer the term "appraisal." "Diagnosis" has a medical ring that seems to me undesirable. Better, it seems to me, to use a word that will get over to the student and to his parents the notion that the institution seeks only 1) to help the student understand his strengths and weaknesses, and 2) to help the officers of the institution to understand the student and his needs.

   But we shan't stop to argue about names. I shall use the term appraisal which in my judgment includes the following divisions:

1. Physical condition
2. Intellectual capacities
3. Emotional health
4. Social skills and maturity
5. Educational status
6. Aptitudes
7. Motivations

2. One Philosophy of the Nature of Man Basis: In the Curriculum* I point to primary importance of one's underlying philosophy of the nature of man, but here I can merely emphasize its all-pervading importance. "What is man that Thou are mindful of him" (Psalms 8:4). Behind every educational program, every educational philosophy stands an answer to this question -- be it implicit or explicit. The answer includes at least four elements: 1) man's relationship to deity, 2) man's relationship to other men (morality codified in ethics), 3) man's relationship to himself, and 4) man's equipment and the relative importance of various parts of that equipment.

In any complete analysis of the problem of the nature of man it would be necessary to discuss each of these four elements, but in this course we can do no more than bow to their importance and to discuss the last two briefly -- and in reverse order -- as follows:

2.1 Man's Equipment and the Valuation of Its Parts:

2.11 Intellectualism: The age-old point of view that the most important part of man is his mind. Man's intelligence separates him from the lower orders of animals, so the argument runs, and thus man's intellectual abilities are his supreme abilities and must be chiefly honored and sedulously cultivated.

Clearly this point of view has much in its favor. Cite the chimpanzee at Fleishacher Zoo (San Francisco) and his interesting tricks but his brain-pan limitations. Cite the imbeciles and morons among humans. Beyond question, brain capacity separates man from the lower animals and makes crucial distinctions among men.

But intellectualism does not account for the discoveries made about the nature of man during the past century or so. It sets up a dualism between mind and body (expressed brilliantly and influentially by Descartes -- 1596-1650 --) which does not check with the known facts of today. Mind and body cannot now be clearly separated. They work in tandem, are for all practical purposes one and the same. The doctrine of the soul made the mind-body dualism of Descartes and earlier philosophers inevitable, but today theological and especially eschatological questions are held in abeyance by scientists. One may take any theological position he cares to or needs to, but for scientific purposes the mind and the body must be considered to be one.

2.12 Holism: My unhappy word coined a dozen years ago connotating the philosophy that man is "a whole," a unity, all parts of him (physical, intellectual, emotional) working in phase, in unity. The word is not good, but the idea seems to me to be thoroughly sound. For all practical, human, terrestial purposes every man is a complete entity, each part influencing every other part.

---

*A separate course.

Holism rests upon a philosophy of *the Self*. The Self is the historic Soul of philosophy with the theological and eschatological elements dropped from consideration. This does not mean that these elements are not important. They are, but man has not yet developed any precision tools for exploring these involved, complicated, and emotionally-charged questions. Thus the word *Self* has more general utility because it holds in abeyance the problems involved in the word *Soul*.

For a discussion of my notions about the Self see:

1. "Education for the Great Community," in the *Journal of General Education*, October, 1946, pp. 22-33.

2. *Hamilton College Survey*, Volume Two, 1940, pp. 117-139.

2.13 Many other points of view, of course. Most important, it seems to me, are:

1. The Freudian conception: The Id, the Ego, and the Superego.

2. The Scholastic point of view best represented currently for educational purposes in Jacques Maritain's *Education at the Crossroads*, 1943. Also implicit in Hutchins's writing especially *The Higher Learning in America*, 1936. But Maritain and Hutchins do not agree. Hutchins is an intellectualist (or was in 1936), but Maritain is not. Cite in particular Maritain's criticism of intellectualism, pp. 18-22 and his thesis of "the preconscious" in passim.

3. The Trait-Psychology of Allport in *Personality--A Psychological Interpretation*, 1937.

4. For background purposes see in particular:

    4.1 William James' chapter on "The Consciousness of Self" in his *Principles of Psychology*, 1890.

    4.2 Josiah Royce's *The World and the Individual*, 1900 and 1901.

Clearly the problem of the relative importance of the various parts of man's equipment abounds in complexity, confusion, uncertainty. (Incidentally, one might well read Dewey's *The Quest for Certainty*, 1929). Probably as long as men live (and stay free!) the quest for certainty will continue. Meanwhile in order to live one must make choices even though one should also be ready to reverse judgments and abandon conclusions in the light of new evidence. For personnel people it seems to me that only one choice needs to be made, namely, between intellectualism and holism. Holism provides for all shades of theological opinion. It merely asserts that men act as wholes and not as minds primarily.

2.2 *Man's Relationship to Himself*: This depends upon the three other elements I've listed: 1) man's relationship to deity, 2) man's relationship to other men, and 3) man's conception of the importance of the various parts of his equipment. For personnel workers *as such*, perhaps little need be said on this topic except to point out that men conceive of themselves as they conceive of God -- that is, their conceptions of God determine their conceptions of themselves -- as they conceive of their relationships with other men, and as they conceive of their equipment. For example, the man who believes that he is by the very fact of living "a miserable sinner" must obviously look at the world and at himself in a very different light from the man who considers himself to be "part of God" in the sense of historic and current pantheism.

But this is a question fraught with perplexities and high emotion. The personnel worker needs to understand that the problem resides in the minds of himself, all men, and especially of his clients -- that is, college students. He must -- or should -- come to personal conclusions, but he must also recognize and reckon with the myriad of ideas that others have. In brief, he must recognize individual differences and support FREEDOM OF OPINION on these vital questions.

3. *Appraisal in Historical Perspective*: The colleges historically have been religiously dominated, and thus they have been chiefly interested in the souls of their students, that is, in their *eternal* well-being, rather more than in their terrestial well-being. They have also been intellectualist, and predominantly they are today. The appraisal enterprise has come in with the measurement movement during the past half century. Thus it is a produce of *science*. Even now it does not flourish in religiously-controlled institutions or in intellectualistic institutions. Indeed, it does not *flourish* anywhere much. It continues to be a pioneer activity and will until the intellectualists relinquish some of their power.

4. *The Elements of Appraisal*:

4.1 *Physical Condition*: Now in operation at most colleges and universities, but seldom done adequately. Cite the Grant Study at Harvard and the ideal program as I visualize it: a thorough physical going-over of every student during freshman week (or before) manned by a complete corps of physicians. Also an annual check-up. Very expensive and therefore not now in operation anywhere to my knowledge. Yet we must move in this direction.

4.2 *Intellectual Capacities*: Tests of several varieties needed: not only scholastic aptitude but also tests of Reasoning ability, etc.

4.3 Emotional Health: Tests here too such as Thurstone's Inventory, the Minnesota Multi-Phasis, the Rohrshack, etc. But interpretation must be in the hands of experts supplemented in all involved cases by psychiatrists. The Army and Navy attempted this in the Selective Service, but the job not done adequately. The work here at Stanford in the Health Service and the Veterans Administration. Vastly important not only because of the cases that get into the newspapers (suicides, etc.), but also because of the hampering adjustmental problems of many, many students.

4.4 Social Bearing (Skill, Maturity): Related to Item 4.3 but more inclusive. The effort here to discover the "social bearing" of the student and also his conceptions of himself. Many scales used here, many inventories. This work still in its infancy. Much research and experimentation needed. Personnel workers should encourage such work but, meanwhile, be wary of the available instruments.

4.5 Educational Status: Here achievement tests employed. Their quality and number need to be improved, extended. Cite the use of placement tests and the use of the results for advancing students in class standing in terms of their results at the beginning of the freshman year. Here the Achievement Concept of primary importance: abandon credits for demonstrated achievement.

4.6 Aptitudes: Related to Item 4.5, but some aptitudes undiscovered by the formal educational agencies -- also undeveloped by them. Informal educational agencies of great significance through hobbies, reading interests, the arts, etc. Aptitude testing as yet limited to formal educational and vocation aptitudes, but it needs to be extended to include aptitudes for leisure-time activities.

4.7 Motivations: This, in my scheme of thinking, the primary, the basic, the core element of the Self. See my article, "Education for the Great Community," cited in Item 2.12. Also, the Hamilton College Survey section entitled, "An Outline of an Educational Philosophy" for a fuller understanding of what I mean by Holism. Therein I discuss the centrality of motivation in my conception of the Self.

4.71 Motives Compared with Purposes: I've not worked on these problems for some years, but some day I want to try to make a distinction between motives and purposes. Tentatively it seems to me that they can be distinguished as follows: 1) a motive is a native urge, drive, and 2) a purpose is an objective determined intellectually. I recognize that this is little more than a hunch, but I submit it for discussion. Later I hope to do more work on it. Meanwhile in this connection students may find a most important discussion of motivations and purposes in L.L. Thurstone's The Nature of Intelligence, 1924.

4.72 Attitudes: As I see it, attitudes develop essentially from motivations and purposes. WHC definition: An attitude is an acquired (that is, learned) way of attending to the environment involving affect (emotion) and leading to action. Here's a mnemonic device for remembering this definition:

$A = A_1 + A_2 + A_3 + A_4$ wherein

A = Attitude

A_1 = Acquired

A_2 = Attention

A_3 = Affect

A_4 = Action

4.73 Types of Motivations and Purposes: Economic and therefore vocational motivations come in for great emphasis in modern education -- and largely because of the impact of the events of 1776. But complete appraisal requires that attention also be given to motivations and purposes 1) for citizenship, 2) for family life, 3) for leisure, 4) for community life, 5) for one's inner life.

4.74 Discovering Motivations and Purposes: Not discoverable by tests -- except by such indirect testing as interest tests and such difficult instruments as the Rohrsach designs. In general motivations can be discovered only by "sensitives," that is, by sensitive, delicately attuned counselors who not only have training in some sound analytical methods but who also have had large experience with life. Good counseling of this "depth" sort requires a broad general education not only formally but also informally in life. To help a student to a self-appraisal of his motivation, therefore, involves a good deal more than technical skill. Indeed, at this juncture technical skill takes second place to 1) sensitivity, 2) depth and range of experience.

Summary of the Elements of Appraisal: This sketch of the elements -- or more properly of the items involved in appraisal -- is clearly most inadequate. Yet it perhaps serves sufficiently for the time being to describe at least the outlines of the enterprise. Be that as it may, we must proceed to describe some of the appraisal programs now in operation.

5. Appraisal Programs:

5.1 The University of Minnesota: This the oldest and best known. More done at Minnesota through the years than at any other college or university in the country. Students will find this pivotal enterprise described in the writings of E.G. Williamson, Donald G. Paterson, John Darley, et al. Also see the writings of Dean John B. Johnstone, the great educator who saw the need of developing personnel work -- including appraisal -- at Minnesota and to whom, in my judgment, the chief pioneering credit should go. Also see T.R. McConnell's article "Problems Involved in Developing a Program of General Education," in the Educational Record for January, 1947, wherein, on page 130.14, he states the point of view of Minnesota concerning appraisal: he urges "comprehensive appraisals" of students at admission.

5.2 Veterans Administration: A huge and important development here, but I do not know of any comprehensive description of it.

5.3 The Harvard Grant Study. Cite the work of Harry Murray at Harvard. See Murray's Explorations in Personality, 1938, and also his 1948 book with Kluchhohn, Personality in Nature, Society, and Culture.

5.4 The University of Chicago Program: Despite Hutchins's intellectualism, the University of Chicago is spending about a million dollars a year on its student personnel program, and it includes a 22-hour appraisal of every incoming freshman. See brief description of this program in The University of Chicago Magazine for November, 1948 by William V. Morgenstern.

5.5 The Yale Program: As I understand it, the Yale program is essentially a testing program built on psychological tests largely. In any event, for a description of Yale's work and point of view, see Forecasting College Achievement by Crawford and Burnham, 1946.

5.6 The Ohio State Program: Much afoot here in recent years.

5.7 Sarah Lawrence: Use of Rorshack method stressed. See Ruth L. Monroe's book of 1945, Prediction of the Adjustment and Academic Performance of College Students by a Modification of the Rohrschach Method.

6. Central Appraisal Agencies: The NYA did something here, and now the VA has done remarkable work -- certainly very extensive. On the basis of these enterprises plus those of several states, the Truman Commission recommended 1) state testing centers and 2) a national testing agency under the direction of the U.S. Office of Education. See Report 3:62-63.

Meanwhile the Federal Government has moved in with a fellowship program to help the training of clinical counselors. Much astir here, obviously, in the direction of central appraisal agencies.

But there are some dangers here including: 1) too much emphasis on test results and too little emphasis on the importance of "sensitive" counselors, 2) too much stress on adjustment, a danger that I shall discuss later when we talk about Adjustmentism, and 3) the fears expressed in such books as Aldous Huxley's Brave New World, 1932. Every "appraiser," every student personnel worker should read this fearsome book.

7. Summary: Clearly I've been able to give but the merest surveys of student appraisal philosophy and activities. I know it to have many weak spots, and I crave criticism of my discussion.

Meanwhile it seems to me that the basic book here is E.G. Williamson's volume of 1939, How to Counsel Students. Every student in this course primarily interested in appraisal should read it and hand me in a digest if not an analysis.

Topic Ten

Counseling

Introduction: In this lecture I can do little with counseling practises but must concentrate on counseling theory and background. One needs a whole course on the practises. Meanwhile Williamson's book, How To Counsel Students, 1939, is the best available work on directive counseling techniques.

One article of mine might be read: "A Preface to the Principles of Counseling," Educational Record, April, 1937. Therein I discuss counseling from three points of view -- as the 1) personalization of education, 2) as the integration of education, and 3) as the coordination of education. I do not develop all three of these conceptions in this lecture; but they seem to me to continue to be sound. Thus I shall expect students to read the article.

1. Terminology: Three words are commonly employed here: counseling, guidance, and psychotherapy. I shall discuss each of them:

1.1 Counseling: From the Latin consulere meaning "to consider, reflect, deliberate, take counsel, ask counsel of." Originally a political term, and Rome had its consuls who headed the government before the Empire. Caesar a consul before he set himself up as dictator. Napolean also Consul of France before he became emperor -- 1800 years later. England, not dictator-ridden for some centuries, took the term over into law but not into government. Thus in England a counselor is one who gives assistance through counsel.

The word and conception are employed in many fields, and so it must always be qualified by an adjective: legal counselor -- a legal counsel; financial counselor -- financial counseling, etc. In turn, in each field it needs further qualification, and thus counseling in colleges and universities breaks down into several kinds of counseling: educational. religious, vocational, personal, etc.

1.2 Guidance: From Middle English and Old French meaning historically and currently: "act of guiding; the superintendence or assistance of a guide; direction; a leading."

No generally accepted definition in educational usage. I dislike the term intensely, but herein I shall show that it has a limited utility as a descriptive word for a necessary but fringe type of counseling. Meanwhile see 1) Pp. 3-4 of these lectures for the arguments against the term, and 2) my 1936 article "The Nature of Student Personnel Work," pp. 15-19.

For the purposes of review, I list the counts against the word:

1.21 Implies superiority of "the guider."
1.22 Bad -- or undesirable -- religious connotations.
1.23 Has no usable noun: "guider" not used, not desirable.

1.24 Has been used so extensively in secondary education that those who dominate higher education do not like it. Whether we approve or not, the professoriate in higher education does not like to have itself associated with the schools, and WORDS SEPARATE PEOPLE. Thus to promote interest in students one must use words acceptable to those whom we are trying to persuade (that is, professors) to be interested in students.

1.3 Psychotherapy: A term coming in for wider usage chiefly among psychologists. It applies only to counseling done by trained psychologists trained in "clinical art." It does not apply to the psychometrist who uses tests alone nor to the clinical psychologist who concentrates on the diagnostic function. It applies only to the psychologist who employs therapy, who attempts to help a counselee resolve his problems. The best review of the status of psychotherapeutic counseling of which I know is by William U. Snyder, a 90-page discussion constituting the whole July, 1947 issue of the Psychological Bulletin and entitled "The Present Status of Psychotherapeutic Counseling." It costs $1.25, and every individual seriously interested in counseling should own a copy!

Variant term: clinical counseling.

1.4 General: For the purposes of college student personnel work the word "counseling" seems the most desirable of the three: guidance seems undesirable for the reasons given, and psychotherapeutic counseling is beyond the range of most personnel people. So also clinical counseling.

The word counseling, however, must always be qualified by an adjective thus: educational counseling, vocational counseling, placement counseling, etc. I'll develop this notion in the course of the lecture.

2. Historical Roots: Counseling is a product of complexity, of a complex society. Primitive societies made few provisions for the individual as such. He constituted a member of the group, and the group functioned as the ultimate unit. Consider religion, for example, where public confessions of sins were provided on stated ceremonial occasions. The individual confessed, but he confessed publicly before the entire group. The Jews followed this practise, a public confession is to this day a part of the observances of the Day of Atonement. During its early centuries the Christian world also followed the practise of public confessions, and in the Epistles "the principle is laid down that the sin of the member affects the whole body."

Beginning in the 4th Century the public confession began to fade out in both the Eastern and Western churches. Scandals forced this especially one in Constantinople in 391. Auricular (private) confession replaced it, first limited to bishops as the confessors and then extended to priests. The practise grew, but it didn't become finally established until the Council of the Lateran in 1215 decreed that every one of either sex must make confession at least once a year before his parish priest, or some other priest with the consent of the parish priest.

Auricular confession constitutes a counseling situation -- and a very important one for Roman Catholics. The Reformation banned it because of its corruptions, but the Council of Trent (which repudiated the Reformation despite Luther's pleas to remain in the Church) continued the practise and provided for the cleaning up of the corruptions.

For the Protestant world the pastoral function replaced auricular confession, and the pastor became the counselor of his parishoners on all sorts of problems.

Meanwhile the family doctor began to develop as a counselor on all sorts of questions. As physicians however, became more and more specialized, the general counseling function of the family physician disappeared -- along with the office of the family physician. This a development of this century. Few families have family physicians today in the sense of the 19th Century. Not only have physicians become more specialized, but families move around more and use the services of many different general practitioners as well as many specialists.

In colleges and universities the line of development in counseling is from religion and not from medicine. The old-time college professor was, of course, a clergyman, and he had a professional interest in the souls of his students. But the clerical professor all but disappeared after the Civil War, and thus counseling waned. Professors were no longer clergymen; and, furthermore, they concentrated upon their scholarship and research. They had no time for students and their personal problems -- nor, indeed, for their academic problems.

Into this situation the great Daniel Coit Gilman introduced the educational counselor. In the 1880's he appointed "advisers" of students and then a chief adviser who became Johns Hopkins's first dean. Following Gilman's example (knowingly or unknowingly) President Eliot of Harvard reorganized the administrative structure of Harvard in 1890 and assigned the advisement of students to the Dean of the College. (Recall that the Harvard deanship came into existence on January 1, 1870).

The original Harvard dean had been essentially a disciplinary officer specifically appointed to relieve President Eliot of disciplinary problems so that he could give attention to the larger affairs of the institution. The counseling function came in with Gilman's vision and his work at Johns Hopkins in the 1880's. Because of the mounting enrollments of the colleges and also because of the establishment of the elective principle, counseling spread and developed. The immediate and pressing need came from the demand of students for someone to help them make out their course programs. The Fixed Curriculum had been killed, and so they needed "guidance" through the maze of elective courses and requirements.

Thus educational counseling came in first. And it was guidance and no more. In fact, Gilman used the word guidance as early as the late 1870's: he wanted to give students help in choosing their courses. But it was guidance, that is superintendence and direction-pointing through the plethora of courses, requirements, majors, minors, electives, etc.

But other emphases came in early during this century including, in particular, 1) vocational advisement, 2) placement assistance, 3) religious counseling, 4) personal-problems counseling, 5) clinical counseling for clearly psychologically-distraught students.

In brief, counseling 1) boomed, 2) became specialized, and 3) the "whole student," got chopped up into slices with few institutions making provisions for anyone to put the slices back together again.

3. Kinds of Individual Counseling: As observed, counseling has become specialized and in general lacks a point of unification. We must, however, discuss these specialized counseling functions and services and, at the end, explore the problem of counseling the "whole student":

3.1 Program Counseling: Originally, as pointed out, counseling counselees through the confusion of requirements, electives, majors, minors, etc. In the strict sense of the word, this isn't counseling but rather guiding through the labyrinth of faculty regulations. Thus it might properly be called guidance, educational guidance. Counseling doesn't begin until the student participates actively and positively in the conference. But against the requirements and regulations the student can't do much else but accept the demands upon him. Thus the "educational counselor" does little else but point out to him what's expected of him and how to fit together a program. This, as I see it, isn't counseling but guidance in the most narrow sense of that word. Yet it's the system in vogue in most of the colleges and universities of the country. However, exceptions in theory and practise exist and will develop:

3.11 Program Counseling and Data from Appraisal: Counseling as distinct from guidance (in the sense of the word used just above) cannot proceed without objective data. The courses a student takes should be determined in the light of the objective facts about his abilities, training, and aptitudes discovered in the appraisal proceedings. Difficulties here:

3.111 Many institutions don't furnish any such data other than a scholastic aptitude test score -- and a few don't even furnish that. Under such circumstances the interview becomes perfunctory or at best a mere exposition of the "rules and regulations" of the institution.

3.112 Except for the unusual "counselor" the interpretation of appraisal data requires training -- brief training in any case. Yet few institutions employ trained counselors or train them after they get them. No thoroughgoing counseling training program exists in the United States to my knowledge. Thus the vast majority of the people "counseling" students work from rules of thumb. They get their assignments as counselors because of 1) their personalities, 2) the demand for counseling and assignment regardless of personality, and 3) their occasional interest in students.

3.12 Faculty Counseling: This an early plan -- and still in use. Eliot established it at Harvard in the 1880's, and it has been spread over the country. Now, many if not most faculty members are thoroughly competent to counsel students on course requirements! Some of them like this work very much, and they do it skillfully. But counseling on course requirement is not educational counseling broadly conceived: it's mere educational guidance in the narrow sense. Some considerations here:

3.121 Some Faculty Members Have Interest in Broad Educational Counseling: This obvious to anyone, but some of these faculty members have the interest but not the skill. Often the interest grows from their own personal problems, and frequently such people do more harm than good. They conceive of counseling broadly, and they attempt to understand the "whole student," but they are not psychologically equipped in terms of insights and objectivity to be desirable counselors.

3.122 Some Have the Skill, the Stability But No Interest: Many such! They're interested in their subjects but are not enough interested in students to want to take time out counseling them.

3.123 Some Have Both Skill and Interest: Their numbers, however, few. THEY SHOULD BE DISCOVERED AND USED!! They should be trained to interpret test data and they should also be given in-service or summer-session training in the psychological factors and principles involved in thorough-going counseling.

3.124 In General: Most faculty members are either unequipped to counsel or uninterested in counseling. These men should not counsel although they may guide a student through the rules and regulations. But even this bad since the rules and regulations should be interpreted in terms of the individual student and his problems, his gifts. Thus, in summary: 1) every faculty member should be asked to be a referring agent directing students in need of assistance to qualified counselors; 2) this requires some knowledge of students and their problems which comes to most faculty members best through a course in graduate school on the psychology of the college student. Few such courses offered today, and none now required. Such courses will grow in number and be required of prospective college teachers ONLY WHEN THE GRADUATE SCHOOL IS REFORMED. Meanwhile counseling will be of little worth, will be little else but educational guidance -- that is, when educational counseling is done predominantly by faculty counselors.

3.125 Faculty Members as Program Counselors: Many faculty members are very good at this necessary but not crucially important work. Moreover, many faculty members like it. And, still more important, many departments insist upon faculty members doing program counseling since it protects the interests of the department, that is, peoples their courses with students.

This self-interest, in fact, constitutes one of the important counts against faculty counseling. Students should have counsel from disinterested people, that is, from people who have no personal or departmental axes to grind, no vested interests to protect.

3.2 Vocational Counseling: The more complex society becomes the more necessary are specialized vocational counselors. Small institutions cannot usually afford to employ specialized counselors, and thus the large universities have the advantage here.

The vocational counselor should be expert in two directions: 1) knowledge of counseling techniques -- with ability to use his knowledge, and 2) knowledge of occupational data, trends, etc. Unfortunately, we have few people at work today who are trained in both these parts of their work.

The vocational counselor should, in my judgment, always work in cooperation -- and under the direction -- of the coordinating counselors whom I shall be describing in Item 3.7 infra. THIS GENERALIZATION APPLIES TO ALL TYPES OF COUNSELING.

3.3 Placement Counseling: Placement work is not often called counseling and seldom conceived as such. The placement people in general do little more than fill requisitions sent in or brought in by administrators seeking staff members. Good placement men are salesmen; they sell the product of an institution, that is, its graduates. As salesmen they have important work to perform, very important work; and thus they seldom have the leisure to counsel either their customers or their clients.

This situation will probably continue since universities seldom give large enough to 1) staff the placement enterprise adequately in terms of numbers of people, and 2) staff them with properly trained people of versatility who can both sell and counsel.

Thus placement must in general be closely supervised (although it seldom is) by the general administrator of the SPW program who must see that its work is not too superficial or too much removed from vocational counseling and coordination counseling.

3.4 Religious Counseling: Remember that organized religion has always been a counseling agency of very high importance. The professors of the Old American College were primarily religious counseling including the famous Mark Hopkins. He did more religious counseling on his famous log than educational or any other type of counseling. In fact, his log was in reality a sinner's, a mourner's bench.

Because of the deep roots of organized religion in the overall counseling enterprise and also because of the belief of most religionists that they alone can counsel students on religious questions, clergymen and their supporters insist that the religious counseling of colleges and universities must be done by them. But I dissent. My thesis is this: 1) that religious counselors representing the various sects should be available for students if they want to confer with them, 2) the institution should establish and maintain cordial relations with the churches, 3) the institution, however, should make available to students two kinds of counselors not associated with organized religion: a) men and women who are religious but who see religion in the broad rather than on sectarian lines alone, and b) people who are not at all associated with organized religion and who may, in fact, be critics of organized religion.

I perhaps ought to develop what I have in mind about the last type of proposed counselor. I reason this way -- and from my personal and administrative experience: many students have large and important problems about religion which should be handled by both religious partisans and religious critics. In short, educational institutions should not weigh religious counseling all on the side of organized religion. It ought to make it possible for a student to talk with the critics as well as with the advocates.

Now I am not proposing that colleges and universities should employ what religionist would be prompt to call an Agnostic Counselor if not an Atheist Counselor. I am only proposing that 1) religious counselors should not all be related to organized religion and 2) that critical faculty members -- that is, critical of religion -- should also be used here when students require their help.

In any case, religious counseling should be under the direction of the coordinating counselor! He should serve as the "internist," the "diagnostician" and call upon religious counselors for their help as he needs them.

3.5 Financial Counseling: This work is usually done perfunctorily, but it needn't be. My plan would be to have the coordinating counselor make all decisions about finances, leaving the clerical work to a clerical staff. In short, the coordinating counselor should see the whole range of the student's affairs and determine financial aid from that background. Then clerks would do the paperwork. This would give the coordinating counselor desirable power and prestige.

3.6 Personal Counseling: Much of this is done informally by faculty members whom students like, by counselors in residences, and by other people. Often this is good counseling because students pick like spirits. Often it is bad counseling. In any event, the coordinating counselor should be the primary person to handle personal counseling.

And by personal counseling I mean that wide variety of discussion on students' miscellaneous problems: relations with their families, with their fellows socially, with members of the opposite sex, with instructors, etc., etc. My thesis is that these personal problems can best be seen in terms of the complete array of facts and insights which the coordinating counselor can alone develop.

3.7 Coordinating Counseling: I've waited a long while -- too long -- to get to this key counselor, this core counselor, this hub of the counseling wheel. I've referred to him several times, but I've not yet described him. Well, here's the place to explain his place in the counseling complex.

A good starting point seems to me to be my 1937 article, "A Preface to the Principles of Student Counseling." In that article I ask and attempt to answer the question: "Why have schools and colleges appointed student counselors?" And I gave these answers:

1. Because education had become impersonal, thus counselors were appointed to combat impersonalism and *to personalize education* once again.
2. Because the multiplication of knowledge had made for a plethora of courses and curriculums, and thus counselors were appointed to help students thread their ways through rules, requirements, and rigidities: they must help each student *to integrate* his *education*.
3. Because of the appearance of a half score or more of specialized counselors -- from physicians to placement officers -- students are chopped up into specialized hunks, and thus a coordinating counselor must gather together all the different facts and counseling advice relating to an individual student *to coordinate counseling*.

On the basis of this article we may now discuss the coordinating counselor:

3.71 *The Need of Coordinating Counsel*: The need seems to me to be clear and to be adequately established in my 1937 article.

3.72 *Functions of the Coordinating Counselor*: To bring together all data about a student -- from the appraisal process, from specialized counselors, from faculty members, etc. -- and to interpret them. He alone sees the student *as a whole person*. Thus he acts much like the internist, the diagnostician in medicine: He coordinates all available data and thus gives the student *a whole picture* of his educational experience and needs.

3.73 *Who Should Coordinating Counselors Be?*: The present fashion is to make clinical psychologists serve as coordinating counselors, and much can be said in support of this practise. But I would pick *people* rather than *training*. In short, I'd pick individuals with a natural gift for *sensitivity*, for *insights*, for *intuition*.

This is so important that I must develop it. In his 1938 book, *Explorations in Personality*, pp. 246-49, H.A. Murray observes that the judgment of personality remains in the realm of intuition, and he writes that there are "reasons to believe that it involves a rather special ability which is not equally distributed in the population . . . . The ability seems to depend upon factors that are innate and factors that are acquired through personal experience and constant exercise."

(246.2) This is exactly my point. The good coordinating counselor has these innate and acquired characteristics which make for the "sensitivity and accuracy" (249.2) to which Murray refers. People with such characteristics should be the individuals selected for coordinating counseling.

3.74 How to Pick Coordinating Counselors: To pick a good coordinating counselor one must hi[illegible] the "sensitivity and accuracy" cited by Murray [illegible] of course, not all SPW administrators have such characteristics. In any event, one must look to two places for such coordinating counselors: 1) people in SPW -- especially those trained in clinical counseling and 2) faculty members who have the knack of counseling and who can be moved over into coordinating counseling work.

But this is trite. Better, it seems to me, to stress the traits that one should look for in seeking such gifted people. These seem to me important: 1) extensive experience in many kinds of activity: the more experience, the more empathy; 2) excellent general education: the more intellectual range and depth, the more empathy and also the more insight.

In short, the coordinating counselor needs to be a remarkably gifted human being as a human being. Technical training no matter how excellent cannot make up for the depth, range, and warmth that coordinating counseling requires.

Properly I ought to devote a full lecture to the coordinating counselor, but I must move on to the next topic. Yet I have perhaps said enough to indicate his huge importance.

4. Counseling Methods: As observed in the introduction of this lecture, I can do little if anything with counseling techniques. But I must, however, discuss briefly the much-talked-about method of non-directive counseling.

4.1 The Rise of Non-Directive Counseling: Almost everyone gives the credit for the non-directive technique to Carl Rogers who in 1942 -- while a professor of psychology at Ohio State -- published his Counseling and Psychotherapy. But in my judgment the credit ought to go to Elton Mayo, recently retired professor of industrial research in the Harvard Graduate School of Business Administration. In 1933 Mayo published his book, Human Problems of an Industrial Civilization, wherein he reports his employment of non-directive counseling at the Hawthorne Works of the Western Electric Company beginning in 1928-29. And Mayo explains his reasons for the initiation of this type of counseling, to wit, the need of Western Electric Company workers to "talk out" their obsessive problems, their obsessive thinking.

I do not recall that Rogers gives Mayo any credit as his antecedent. It seems to me that he should. Meanwhile the record stands clear -- at least clear to me -- that Mayo's discussion of non-directive counseling appeared nine years before that of Rogers'.

4.2 Non-Directive Counseling a Protest Technique: Both Mayo and Rogers began as measurement men. Mayo had long made fatigue studies in industry, and he measured sedulously. Rogers on his part wrote a book, his first book, in 1931 entitled Measuring Personality Adjustment in Children. But both concluded, apparently, that instruments of psychological measurement were not accurate enough to give the last words in counseling problems. Thus they moved from the science of personality appraisal to the art thereof. In effect, they said that the artist, the sensitized, intuitive counselor can often do things that the scientist can't do. Hence the non-directive counseling point of view is in part a protest against the inadequacies of psychological science in favor of psychological art.

But a second prong of protest must be identified, to wit, the protest against the self-assurance if not the cockiness of the scientifically trained counselor. Not a few scientifically trained counselors became so sure of their test results and their techniques that they strutted. Yet plenty of people knew that their instruments had insufficient reliability and often low validity. But many scientifically trained counselors overlooked this limitation and, as I say, strutted. The Mayo-Rogers people constitute a protest against this self-assurance.

In the third place, the Mayo-Rogers movement seeks to bring the counselee into the center of the situation. The scientific counselors often failed to do this. Rather, they "told" the counselee what decisions he should make. This permitted the counselee to say little: he could merely listen and hear the "verdict." The Mayo-Rogers people protested against this too.

4.3 Criticism of Non-Directive Counseling: But the non-directive counseling movement isn't the panacea that its advocates think. It's a protest movement, and all protest movements overstate their cases, go too far in the opposite direction. I shan't stop to detail these criticisms but make only one and refer you to the best writings on the question that I know.

The essential criticism of non-directive counseling seems to me to be this: it finds tests faulty, and so it abandons them instead of employing them but reducing their importance. Rogers, for example, would use no test results at all. In short, he leaves science entirely and becomes entirely the artist. This seems to me to be ridiculous. Tests are inaccurate, of course, but they must be perfected and meanwhile employed to the extent of their utility. Rogers seems to me to be comparable to a mythical physician who will use no stereoscope, no microscope, no fluroscope: he'd just let the patient talk himself out. But who would submit himself to such a physician?

And this brings to mind another criticism: non-directive counseling has utility chiefly in emotional problems. It is too expensive of time to be employed in the typical counseling situations of students in colleges and universities. Only the coordinating counselor should employ it other than the clinical counselors dealing with neuroses. And the coordinating counselor must use the technique sparingly lest he be swamped with a few students to the neglect of the majority of his counselees.

The best discussion of the credits and debits of both directive and non-directive counseling seems to me to be that of Frederick C. Thorne of the University of Vermont who has written a series of articles on counseling in the Journal of Clinical Psychology. The last three of his articles appear in Issue No. Four of 1948. They are briefed in Psychological Abstracts for January, 1949, p. 27.

4.4 The Significance of the Non-Directive Counseling Protest: The non-directive counseling movement serves as a protest against the excessive self-assurance of scientific counseling. As a protest movement it has had high utility. It will not overwhelm scientific counseling but instead will lead to a melding of the merits of the old and the new.

5. Summary: Clearly this has been an inadequate discussion of counseling. I have attempted only to identify the peaks, and I've probably missed some of the most important of them. I petition student criticisms for the improvement of the lecture the next time I give it.

APPENDIX

Snyder, William U., "The Present Status of Psychotherapeutic Counseling," Psychological Bulletin, Vol. 44, No. 4. July, 1974, pp. 297-386.

1. Purpose: To review the significant studies in this field which have appeared since 1940, to appraise the methods of therapy in use, and to discover any basic trends which may be developing. (294.4)

   1.1 Psychotherapeutic Counseling: Defined as a face-to-face relationship in which a psychologically trained individual is consciously attempting, by verbal means, to assist another person or persons to modify emotional attitudes that are socially maladjusted, and in which the subject is relatively aware of the personality reorganization through which he is going. (298.2)

2. The Psychologist as a Counselor: Although the history of counseling goes back many years before the existence of the science of psychology within the field of psychology the use of this technique is rather recent. (299.3) Psychiatrists have utilized counseling since the beginning of the century, and in a somewhat modified form it was being used by social workers a little more than a decade later. The Psychologist entered the mental hygiene field from the point of view of the measurable phenomena of behavior, i.e., psychometrics. Consequently the clinical psychologist became known for his diagnostic function in the "clinical team." (299.4) With certain outstanding exceptions, even among clinical psychologists, attempts to counsel did not become at all widespread until the decade of the thirties. Now the field of clinical psychology is being broadened to include the concepts of counseling and psychotherapy in addition to the previously accepted role of diagnosing individual differences. As this broadening of interest occurs, a significant trend is that of the rise of distinct schools of psychotherapy. (302.4)

3. Traditional Psychotherapeutic Counseling: (Darley and Williamson)

   3.1 Description of the Method: The general techniques included under this heading are those associated with psychotherapy from the beginning of the century. These include interpretation of the meaning of personality disorders to the client, giving information, suggestion, exhortation, reassurance, criticism, palliation, praise, and advice. This is a list of the activities of the counselor. The role of the client has been thought to be a passive one. (303.1)

   3.2 Theories Underlying This Approach: Success of treatment depends upon the transference or positive rapport which is built up between the counselor and patient. (312.5) An important aspect of effective cure is the doctor-patient relationship. (312.4) Case histories are very important since most of the progress in counseling is based upon the psychiatrists knowledge of the patient. (311.2) Authority in treatment is effective with the psychopathic personality because the latter has a basic dependency which he gratifies by testing the limits of authority, and with the neurotic personality in which self-consistence is not maintained. (311.5) Confinement permitted by this technique is valuable in making possible therapeutic counseling of men who would not ordinarily consult a counselor. (312.3)

3.3 Research and Evaluation: The traditional approach has only been examined in terms of overall effectiveness and little effort has been made to evaluate specific techniques such as: interpretation, persuasion, reassurance, suggestion, etc. (313.3)

3.4 Special Modifications of the Traditional Approach:

3.41 Brief Psychotherapy: This refers to treatment which is completed within a month or two after referral. Successful treatment is had when the problems are relatively immediate and superficial, and in cases in which motivation by reward and punishment is possible. (315.4)

3.42 Suggestion: The essential prerequisites to effective use are the absence of critical opposition and an attitude of expectance on the part of the client. A criticism of this therapy is that it merely removes the symptom and does not cure the underlying personality disturbance. (317.3)

3.43 Semantics: The basic idea is that rational thinking can eliminate many anxieties, and probably can affect psychosomatic complaints, therefore, this method consists of an effort to teach principles of scientific observation and reasoning in everyday life experience. (318.3)

3.44 Narcosynthesis: Consists in general in the administration of a sedative or hypnotic drug to the subject, who during the ensuing period of light narcosis is encouraged to re-enact traumatic situations which have produced neuropsychiatric disturbances. This is primarily diagnostic. The later Psychotherapeutic aspect of the treatment is extremely important, and all authors agree that no cure is effected without it. (319.2)

4. Hypnosis: (Erickson, Alexander, Kahn, Salter, Kardiner)

4.1 Description of the Technique: Hypnosis goes back in origin at least to the 18th Century and the method is well known. Hypnosis has gone through several periods of extreme disrepute during its history, but it seems that it is now again swinging into favor with a number of therapists. (320.3)

4.2 Theoretical Contributions: Many feeble-minded and psychotic persons and most psychoneurotics are difficult or impossible to hypnotize. In explaining the effectiveness of treatment four factors are stressed: (321.4)

4.21 The increased awareness of psychosomatic relationships.

4.22 The increased willingness to accept suggestion.

4.23 The expression of tensions.

4.24 The enhancement of physical strength through post-hypnotic suggestion.

4.3 Research and Evaluation: Research has been on the problem of hypnotizability and on the nature of the phenomenon itself, and on group hypnosis. The technique is valuable in exploring patient's forgotten memories of traumatic events, and is useful in removing symptoms and gaining acceptance of suggestions given during a trance. (321.5)

5. Psychoanalysis: Most psychiatrists and psychologists agree that psychoanalysis is a medical psychology without adequate roots in or connections with scientific medicine or scientific psychology. (323.5)

5.1 Theoretical Contributions: One group of theoretical articles considers the psychoanalytic concept of transference. The conclusion is that suggestions can be accepted when they come from a person the patient is able to accept because of some erotic transference. (324.1) Close to the idea of transference is that of "giving love" in psychotherapy, based on the theory that the therapist should supply the love that the patient has felt the need of all of his life. (324.3) The analyst feels that insight may be insufficient to produce a change in behavior, therefore he places more emphasis on the emotional benefit of recounting experiences as if the client were actually undergoing them at the time. (326.3)

5.2 Research in Psychoanalytic Therapy: There seems to be a wholesome trend in the direction of subjecting analytic concepts to experiment, and particularly in the areas of the Oedipus and Electra complexes, the Freudian hypothesis is not supported. (326.4)

5.3 Evaluation of Psychoanalytic Therapy: The analytic treatment fails when it does not succeed in "mobilizing sufficient psychic energy," Whatever that may be. (326.1) Probably the best evaluative statement is that "psychoanalysis is pre-scientific in character, and that the failure of different analytic groups to come to any type of agreement is the result of their inability to explore experimentally the concepts they work with. (326.3)

5.4 Special Modifications of Psychoanalysis:

5.41 Brief Psychoanalysis: Works toward a goal of treatment within one to sixty sessions. Every aspect of it is pointed toward greater flexibility rather than rigid psychoanalytic procedure. The major criticism of this method by traditional psychoanalysts is that there is a "regretable decline in interpretation of dreams." (329.3-330.5)

5.42 Hypnoanalysis: This combination of the techniques of hypnosis and psychoanalysis. Its main strength is that the hypnosis saves time in locating the source of the disturbance. (330.5-332.5)

5.43 Narcoanalysis: The only real differentiation between this method and narcosynthesis is that the more traditional psychoanalytic theories are superimposed on the treatment. (332.5)

6. Psychodrama: Begun in this country by J.L. Moreno who had used it since 1911, it consists of a formalized dramatic situation in which the patient takes one of various types of roles and actually plays out characterizations of himself or other persons significantly related to him. Other patients act out the roles of the patient's "alter-egos." The concept is highly systematized, and much esoteric terminology is employed. (333.2)

6.1 Evaluation: The psychotherapeutic approaches of Freud, Adler, Jung, and others are merely less adequate approaches to Moreno's Psychodrama techniques. Psychoanalysis is described as an underdeveloped form of psychodrama in that the analyst and the patient each assume roles recapitulating early childhood experiences, however, the roles are not acted out as they are in psychodrama. (335.1)

7. Relationship Therapy: This technique has grown out of the concept of "will therapy" formalized by Rank, a pupil of Freud. It stresses the principle that the important aspect of the therapeutic situation is less what is said and done than the nature of the relationship which is established. A major contribution is the removal of the direction from the counselor's role. For this reason this has often been called passive counseling and avoids imposition of the will of the therapist. (335.3)

7.1 Evaluation: One significant point is that Taft now denies that her counseling is a form of therapy since it is not intended for the sick person, but is merely a process of relationship. Since it is not a therapy a diagnosis is unnecessary. Throughout the writings of each of these individuals there is an effort to demonstrate that the therapy should be centered around the feelings of the client and for this reason the tendency has arisen to call this and the following methods client centered. Often the client is given the responsibility of developing the theme of the treatment and of working out the solution to his problem. (336-337)

8. Non-Directive Therapy: (Rogers, Snyder et al.)

8.1 Description of the Method: The major principle underlying the non-directive technique is that the client, himself, rather than the counselor is responsible for the direction of the interview and for the working out of the solution to his problem. (338.4) The function of the counselor is to reflect as accurately as possible the feelings associated with the client's statements. Rogers indicates that the individual possesses within himself some drive toward achieving a more satisfactory level of personal adjustment which can be released in a situation in which he is free of the usual impediments or emotional barriers set up in interpersonal relationships. Therefore the counselor makes every effort to create a relationship that is as permissive as possible. (339.2)

8.2 Theoretical Contributions: There are four basic assumptions of non-directive counseling: 1) the individual possesses a drive toward growth, health, and adjustment. 2) The therapeutic relationship is itself a growth experience. 3) This method stresses the immediate situation rather than early traumatic experiences of the individual, and 4) the emotional aspect of adjustment is more important than the intellectual ones. (340.1)

8.21 Rogers holds that insight, the keystone of the process of therapy, is seldom produced in directive and interpretive procedures such as psychoanalysis. In the non-directive technique the counselor almost never uses tests on his own initiative. If the client requests them, or if they are desired for research, they may be administered, but even then seldom by the counselor, therefore, diagnostic knowledge and skill is not necessary for good therapy. The most feasible area for use of this technique is the college situation, and then it has been used the most. (344.1)

8.3 Research in Non-Directive Counseling: One of the very useful contributions of the non-directive group has been their emphasis on experimental verification of their principles. The results of this research has set forth the following principles: (345.1)

8.31 Since counseling can be a systematic, orderly process, the recorded content of counseling interviews can be reliably analyzed by certain methods of categorization. (345.5)

8.32 The client's feelings change in a consistent fashion during and after the counseling. This brings out the importance of the follow-up as an indication of measurable personality change brought about by counseling. (350.5)

8.33 The reasons for lack of success of a treatment method can be studied experimentally since various types of counselor activity preceded and apparently caused certain client responses, and the interrelationship between the various problems of the client is an important factor related to the outcome of the counseling. Therefore this demonstrates the feasibility of comparing different counseling techniques. (348.2)

8.4 Evaluation of Non-Directive Counseling: Except in cases where the individual is incompetent to judge the meaning of his behavior, the method is more likely to produce "internally spontaneous harmony" than the directive method does. (353.2)

8.41 Strengths: Moore states the method has an advantage in being a safe tool for the relatively slightly trained counselor; but since the counselor's personality is so important, not every counselor can be trained in this method. The method represents a crystallization of basic tenets long recognized in the therapeutic process. (353.4)

8.42 Criticisms: Lowrey believes that therapy cannot exist without direction, therefore, the non-directive method is not really therapy. Where anxiety is non-existent the method will not work. The changes which occur in the non-directively conducted interview are fairly superficial. It is more often true that cases treated non-directively are considered cured despite the fact that the usual criteria of social acceptability have not been met. The method frequently overlooks medical symptoms. (354.4)

9. Group Therapy:

9.1 Description: Any activity with more than one person which produces beneficial effects, is, in a broad sense, group therapy. The more controlled types of group therapy fall into three groups. (355.1)

9.11 Group therapy for one or more patients carried on by one or more therapists or therapeutic agents.

9.12 Group therapy by treating the individual in the natural group.

9.13 Therapy by treating him in an artificial or special group.

It can also be divided by other criteria into four types: 1) Play or release group therapy, 2) activity group therapy, 3) interpretive group therapy, and 4) group work which is educational and social but involves very little therapy. (355.3)

9.2 Evaluation:

9.21 Advantages: The group situation helps to encourage the reserved patient since he finds his anxieties less unique. The group may be able to suggest alternative solutions to the problems which might not readily occur in an individual situation, and the newer patient may receive reassurance as to the desirability of treatment from older patients and thus increase rapport. (355.5)

9.22 Disadvantages: The level of therapy is seldom as deep as in an individual situation because rapport is less personal. The group must be so carefully selected and homogeneous that the list of inaccessible individuals is so broad that there is doubt this method can be used with neurotics. It has been found occasionally that patients copy the symptoms of other patients in the group. (356-358)

10. General Theoretical Considerations:

10.1 Factors Which Relate to Treatability of the Subject:

10.11 One of the most prominent factors bearing upon the treatability of the patient is the desire of the patient for help. (360.3)

10.12 Diagnoses of Schizophrenia, alcoholism, and hereditary mental diseases are unfavorable factors in treatability. (360.5)

10.13 The general inarticulateness and the attitude of outer subservience of the Southern Negro makes real therapeutic relationships difficult. (361.1)

10.14 Dull normal intelligence does not of itself have an unfavorable effect on the outcome of treatment. (361.1)

10.2 Factors Affecting Choice of Therapy: The choice of therapy should be decided by the type of problem presented since it appears no single method of therapy is applicable to all problems. Where deep feelings of guilt predominate psychoanalysis is favored. (363.2)

10.21 Wohlberg's division of psychotherapy into three schools aids in making the choice of therapy. The schools are: (363.4)

10.211 Those whose sole objective is the removal of symptoms and whose techniques are persuasion, suggestion, and the plunging of the self into extraverted activities.

10.212 Those therapies which attempt to restore the neurotic balance by a supportive relationship of dependence upon the physician or social worker without attempts at developing insight.

10.213 Therapies that attempt a reorganization of the personality structure through the achievement of insight.

10.3 Comparative Evaluation of the Techniques: Large-scale follow-ups on different psychotherapeutic efforts have been statistically made and most of the opinions are that the good therapist succeeds with any method he cares to use. (364.4) The difference in results of psychotherapy between hospitals, mental hygiene clinics, psychoanalytic institutes, and private psychoanalysts and psychotherapists are not impressive. Clinics, however, seem to have the poorest results and individual psychotherapy, including psychoanalysis seems to be the best. It is also interesting to note that cases which are treated by a briefer type of psychotherapy seem to accomplish about the same ratio of cure as the more prolonged treatments. (365.4)

10.4 Areas of Agreement in Therapies: With regard to objectives, all therapies are concerned with the removal of underlying etiology as well as symptoms, and to achieve this as rapidly as possible. With regard to procedures, most therapies seem to utilize the techniques of catharsis, rapport or transference, faith in the therapist, suggestion, verbal objectification of unconscious attitudes, and desensitication to frustrating situations. In content or semantic interpretation, however, the therapists differ considerably.

11. Summary and Conclusions: Schools of psychotherapy can be classified most significantly into a group which depends upon the counselor to do something for or to the client, and a group which places the major emphasis upon the activity of the client and in which the therapist takes the role of a catalyst. (367.1)

There seems to be a trend to modify or vary the earlier techniques of counseling, and to question established concepts of psychotherapy. There also has arisen recently a rather strong development toward eclecticism, in the form of an attempt to bring the various contributions of each school of therapy into a synthesis. Unfortunately, however, such eclecticism sometimes takes the form of a kind of haphazard smorgasbord approach where little of everything is tried; more frequently, however, it seems to represent an effort to apply the most appropriate techniques in each case. (367.3)

There seems to be a fairly high degree of agreement among the therapists as to the type of clients who respond most satisfactorily to treatment, and there is a definite tendency toward the use of briefer treatment. (368.2)

A highly commendable trend within the past five or six years is the tendency to recognize that there is no method of therapy which cannot be subjected to scientific examination. Even the most systematized or theoretical constructs are now being explored. Psychotherapy while long an art is in the early stages of becoming a science. (368.4)

In summary it can be said that psychotherapeutic counseling is gradually becoming accepted as a recognized function of the clinical psychologist, that the numerous techniques of counseling may be undergoing some amalgamation, and that a commendable beginning has been made in the scientific objectification and analysis of counseling procedures. Much still remains to be done, however, in techniques of psychotherapeutic counseling. (369.3)

Burns B. Young
February 6, 1950

Eleventh Lecture

Financial Aid

Introduction: In the last lecture (Item 3.5) I observed that the coordinating counselor should make decisions about financial aid and that clerks should handle the paper work. But financial aid involves a good deal more than counseling and associated clerical work. Helping students to finance their student years burrows down into fundamental social philosophy and social practice, and it must be in these terms that we discuss the topic.

We shall handle the matter historically and then end with a discussion of the recommendations of The Truman Commission.

Financial aid to students is of four kinds: 1) outright gifts known today as scholarships and fellowships, 2) prizes, 3) part-time employment, and 4) loans. We shall discuss each of these varieties of financial aid historically and currently. First, however, we must appriase the social philosophy behind such help to students.

1. The Social Philosophy Supporting Financial Aid: Financial aid to students is but a variety of financial aid to people in general. Today social security, unemployment insurance, and old-age pensions all constitute kinds of financial aid. Also private individuals in the past and in the present have aided other individuals. Why should the state and private individuals thus assist others?

   To answer this question adequately we would have to dip deeply into history and also into social philosophy. I cannot, of course, do much dipping in either place. Enough to make these general points:

   1) Historically the Roman Empire faced these problems, and Roman officialdom included an officer called the magister liberorum, or "master of requests." He made gifts from the state to individuals and to the populace in general. Roman economics required both.

   2) Currently we have developed wider notions of distributive justice which apply here. Discuss this conception. Also develop the thesis of minimums evolved to support theories of distributive justice. Cite social security, etc.

   But we must concentrate on two large facets of the topic of aid:

   1.1 Unequal Distribution of Wealth: No modern society has developed an economic modus vivendi which rewards individuals equitably for their contributions to the on-going of society. This is true under socialism and communism as well as under capitalism. The Communist Manifesto demanded "Abolish all private property," but Marx also wrote

"From each according to his abilities, to each according to his needs." Communism does not permit *productive wealth* to be owned privately, but it does permit inequality in non-productive wealth.

Societies have always paid premiums to those who perform services of high importance for them at various times in their development. Thus businessmen get the largest rewards today (along with entertainers) because we chiefly value their productions. In the ancient world savants and seers lived on the economic wealth produced by the slaves they acquired through war or inherited from their ancestors.

The problem of the unequal distribution of wealth constitutes one of the most complex in all history; and, of course, we struggle mightily with it today. Witness the current struggle between communism and free-enterprise. Because of the coming of machine technology with its fantastic power and even greater potentials we may be able to solve the problem of the distribution of economic wealth. Lord Keynes in his book of twenty years ago entitled *Essays in Persuasion* hazarded the prediction that within a hundred years (great wars not occuring) we would be able to meet the economic needs of all the people of the earth -- and adequately. This would be an epochal accomplishment, and it may well happen. But, clearly, we have not arrived at that day yet, and probably none of us now living will be around to see it happen.

In short, the unequal distribution of wealth has been a social fact since primitive times,remains a potent fact today, and has produced historically the need of giving financial aid to sectors of the general population and -- in particular -- to some of the student members of rising generations.

1.2 *Ability Crosses Economic Class Lines:* Our economic systems have all rewarded certain types of people -- in particular those producing, trading, or pirating economic goods. But the world needs other kinds of people and especially those producing intellectual, spiritual, and esthetic wealth. But these men -- both adults and as youths -- often lack the economic wealth to pay for their education. In addition to that, the economically underprivileged classes have always included individuals of high ability who patently should be developed in order that society at large might profit from the development of that ability. Keen members of the economically privileged classes saw this, and they set about providing financial assistance for bright youths. *Thus developed the basic idea behind scholarships and other methods of financial aid to students.*

Incidentally, someone in the personnel field interested in the whole area of financial aid might well write a dissertation on this topic of ability crossing class lines. The undertaking would trace the developing awareness of the line-crossing particularly in the 19th century. He would give particular attention to the writings of Lester Ward, the great American sociologist, who hammered away at this conception at the turn of the century. He would also gather and organize the statistical evidence produced through aptitude testing -- particularly scholastic aptitude testing.

2. The History of Financial Aid: An exhaustive study of financial aid and its backgrounds would turn up, I imagine, data demonstrating that the potentates of the Asiatic empires of the pre-Christian period gave financial assistance to promising youths so that after being educated they would return to the potentates' service. I've never investigated that history, and so I begin with the Roman Empire of the second and third centuries of the Christian era.

2.1 Roman History: As observed eralier, the Roman emperors gave financial aid to the populace and also to youths. To administer this service the office of *magister libelorum* appeared. The great Roman jurist Ulpian held the office early in the third century and wrote about it in his legal commentaries. He used the word "maintain" in these discussions, i.e., the verb *exhibere* which accounts for the English for many centuries calling their financial aid to students *exhibitions*.

2.2 English History:

2.21 Outright Gifts: Exhibitions established in English schools even earlier than the establishment of Oxford and Cambridge. The name seems, however, to have been confined chiefly to the schools, and the universities developed other terms particularly pensioners, commoners, fellows, scholars. I shall not take time to run down this history or to abstract it for you. Instead, I merely point out that financial aid is as old as the oldest English universities and that the universities of the Continent had comparable programs. See Cy. E. 2: 543-45, 591-95.

2.22 Prizes: Prizes for excellence have been used from time immemorial, and they played a large part in Greek life in particular. There the Olympic Games included contests in intellectual and esthetic activities as well as in physical prowess, and many Greeks depended for support on the prizes that they won at these and other Games. Also Rousseau got his start by winning the money prize of the French Academy in 1750 with his great essay *Discours sur Les Arts et Sciences*. Oxford and Cambridge probably offered prizes for centuries, but during the early part of the 19th century they came in for great emphasis in the effort of the authorities to improve student work. Prizes came to us from England, and Francis Wayland's book of 1842 seems to have been a major stimulant for the borrowing of the idea.

2.23 Part-Time Employment: Also an old-time method of giving financial aid. I do not know its history, but "bursaries" very old and brought to this country from England.

2.24 Loans: Neither do I know the history of this method of aid, but it's apparently quite old.

2.3 American History:

2.31 Outright Gifts: Originally called scholarships with us. This term, of course, continues; but in general it seems to be confined to undergraduate financial aid and sometimes involves work obligations. President Gilman of Johns Hopkins seems to have borrowed the words fellow and fellowships from England and the Continent and brought them to the United States. In any event, he established fellowships at Johns Hopkins, and the idea took hold at many other universities. In general they are held by graduate students and, now and then, by post-doctoral recipients.

2.32 Prizes: Apparently brought to the United States, as observed above, by Francis Wayland. This method employed more by the private institutions of the East than by Middle Western and Western universities. Many students earn fairly large sums by winning prizes in these old-line universities and colleges. Many of these institutions have large endowment funds tied up in prizes -- especially in prizes for work in the ancient languages and mathematics. Some of these prizes go begging now because of the shifts in student interests. Some needy students see this and specialize in them just to win the prize money. Probably in the course of time some boards of trustees will go to the courts to have the endowments diverted to other purposes.

2.33 Part-Time Employment: As old as American higher education, but it has spread with the increase of the size of institutions of higher education and with the mass movement into the colleges and universities. Many probelms here including:

2.331 Should students engage in part-time employment? Many assert that such work is desirable, but a dozen years ago President Conant of Harvard deplored the necessity. He argued that students should give all their attention to the regular activities of the college. Chiefly he meant academic work, but he probably also had extra-curricular activities in mind. But many do not agree with Mr. Conant.

2.332 Does part-time employment improve or retard scholarships? Many studies here -- and on both sides of the question. It seems to me that no generalization can be made which applies to all institutions and to all individuals. To attempt to produce such a generalization seems to me to be trying to do the impossible.

2.34 Loans: Also very old. Harvard, for example, has a loan fund which started a long while ago with a few thousand dollars and which now amounts to about a million dollars. This present-day fund has grown from the accrual of interest on the original fund. It has always been administered by alumni who guard it carefully and build it up faithfully by demanding repayments at, I think, two per cent interest. Many institutions have loan funds, but publicly-controlled institutions do less with this method than privately-controlled institutions.

2.35 General: Some one in the personnel field should commandeer this segment of personnel work and become an authority, the authority, on it. He should know all about financial aid currently, and he should also research its history thoroughly. Such historical research would relate student financial aid to the history of philanthropy in general and would, in particular, ferret out the facts about the funds established by Benjamin Franklin and Stephen Girard during the period of the Revolution. This a grand problem for the right person, and I should like to see one of my students make it his life's work!

3. The Current Situation:

3.1 Outright Gifts: I haven't the statistics at hand, but everyone knows that scholarship and fellowship funds have grown prodigiously especially during this century. Here's a paper for someone to write: the rise of scholarship and fellowship funds since, say, 1870. Meanwhile these generalizations seem pertinent:

3.11 Of two kinds: 1) outright gifts, and 2) some work required. The former outnumber the latter by far.

3.12

Most scholarship recipients are expected to demonstate both need and ability. A notable exception: The National Scholarships of Harvard established early during Mr. Conant's administration. Almost 200 of these given yearly throughout the country amounting to $1200. The amount given to a recipient, however, depends upon his need: he may get the full amount or nothing. The amounts not published, and thus rich boys may also be National Scholars. A very clever arrangement.

3.13 Much attention now being given to the problem of scholarships financed by government. N.Y. State has long given Regents' Scholarships of $150.00 annually to four students in each assembly district. This recently changed, but I'm not familiar with the details. (A paper might be written on the N.Y. State plan -- past and present). Other states have comparable plans, but N.Y. State seems to have done the most here. Now much agitation for scholarships financed by the Federal Government. This proposed as a major method of financial aid to education since it gives help to individuals and involves no control over institutions.

3.14 The G.I. Bill a form of Federal scholarship. It does not require ability, however -- or even need. G.I. privileges are rewards for service in the armed forces. The G.I. Bill one of the most important developments in the history of American higher education. It may seem to later historians to be of comparable significance to the Land Grant College Act of 1862. In any event, it opens up dramatically the question of federal aid to education via aid to individuals.

3.2 Prizes: Waning as a method of financial aid. But a new twist has been developing, a twist of considerable consequence, namely, the rewarding of able students with the best available jobs upon graduation. Because of the Lowell studies of 1909-10 and the A.T.&T. studies of 1928 (PBI 1535) and 1930 (PBI 623) it has become apparent that success in one's career depends in large measure upon one's academic and extra-curricular success as an undergraduate. See the latest study in this area by Knox in *School and Society* for 1947, Vol. 65, pp. 194-95. (PN 16.372). Also see the story in *Time* for 6-16-47, p. 30 (PN 391.8) reporting that veterans are working hard for high grades because they know that high grades help them get better jobs. Thus in business and also in law and medicine high grades being greatly valued because they lead to the PRIZES of better jobs or to admission to the professional schools against the severe competition now so widespread.

3.3 Part-Time Employment: In Item 3.23 I've discussed part of the current situation, but attention must also be paid to the N.Y.A. endeavor of the 1930's. If we have a severe depression, demands will surely come (and probably be needed) for a reinstatement of the N.Y.A. or for the establishment of something like it.

3.31: The N.Y.A.: This aid for work done. This helped both institutions and individual students. Much boondoggling but also much solid, valuable work. The plan also had the virtue of aiding the able but not-brilliant student. These need help too. They constitute the back-bone of the nation, but under scholarship plans they are seldom aided.

3.32 Jobs: Aside from the question of whether or not it's *desirable* for students to work part-time for self-support, the fact remains that many students *must* work in order to stay in college. They do all sorts of things from menial work to living on their wits. As long as we have an unequal distribution of wealth, we shall have students of this kind, and we need to help them. Thus employment bureaus have been established at many institutions to help them find work. This good. This inevitable in a well-rounded student personnel program.

3.4 Loans: Many students don't like loans since they think it the responsibility of society to educate them. Perhaps it is -- at least the very best should be educated *in society's own interest.* The fact remains, however, that financial assistance through the other three methods described is not adequate to provide all the help needed. Thus the idea of loaning money to students has evolved.

3.41 The Rationale of Loans: Students, so the argument runs, who are going to earn large incomes as the result of their education ought to repay at least part of the cost. The mechanism for such repayment is the note signed for a loan. Much sense in this point of view. The question that plagues some people, however, is this: how do you know that the student given a loan will enter a profession in which he'll earn a large income? Potential professors, clergymen, school teachers, and writers should be helped through college; but most of these don't earn large incomes. Should they be required to pay back part of the cost of their education from their meager earnings? But what about lawyers and doctors? Consider the average earnings of these groups. They are not so high either.

3.42 Indirect Payments: The alumni fund a method of indirect payment for assistance given in the meeting of educational costs. Scholarships often repaid in this fashion by conscientious alumni. I one such, and there are many others. Also large bequests and gifts frequently made by men who struggled through college and who had, or did not have, financial aid from benefactors. The Alumni Fund a major method of money raising of private institutions today.

3.5 A General Consideration: In state institutions the cost of education is borne by taxation largely, but students pay a small fraction of the total. In private institutions, on the other hand, benefactors living and dead pay up to 66% of educational costs. Both of these methods of helping students finance their education, be it emphasized, are social methods. They differ in that the state controls the first methods and private individuals contribute the funds to alodial institutions and sectarian institutions which control the second method..

In short, we have three methods of financing financial aid to students -- three methods in terms of the agencies contributing and controlling funds: 1) the state, 2) alodial institutions, and 3) sectarian or self-interest institutions. All three of these methods are social, but the second and the third are controlled, under state approval, by small numbers of people rather than, as under the first method, by all the people.

I cannot stop to discuss the merits and demerits of these three methods. I attempt to do that in my course on the Government of Higher Education. Enough for the time being to identify the three methods so that we may now proceed to discuss the swelling demand that the state contribute larger and larger sums for financial aid to students.

4. Financial Aid Recommendations of the Truman Commission: During the recent past several groups have recommended federal aid to education, but we can discuss only the proposals of the Truman Commission. A thorough review of the problem of federal aid would require that we give considerable attention to the 1) recommendations of the 1936-39 Advisory Commission on Education set up by President Roosevelt and 2) the bill before the 80th Congress for aid of $300,000,000 to the schools -- a bill being presented again to the 81st Congress. We should also have to give attention to the Steelman Report which recommended that aid be given to universities for research and scholarship and also for aiding promising young scientists. And we should also have to trace the development of financial aid to education from the states which, be it noted, began seriously to support state universities only during the last two decades of the 19th century.

Obviously the problem of financial aid to education by the state and federal governments-- not to mention municipal and county governments-- abounds in complexity. Obviously, too, we must here confine ourselves to the proposals of the Truman Commission.

4.1 Amount of Student Aid Proposed:

4.11 Undergraduates: 300,000 to be aided (2:53.1) at a cost of $1,000,000,000 annually by 1960 (2:53.4). *

4.111 Numbers: 300,000 to begin with, but when the plan in full operation 20% of all non-veteran students would be aided. (2:53.2 & 2:68.12). Since the Commission recommends that higher educational enrollments be 4,600,000 by 1960, then 20% of this number would be 960,000 students to be aided by 1960.

4.112 Undergraduate Aid: $1,000,000,000 annually. 2:53.4.

4.113 Amount of Aid: Ranging from $400 to $800 annually. Average to be $400. 2:53.1, 67.5.

4.114 Criterion for Aid: To be "based primarily on individual need" (2:67.5) and to be available to "every qualified young person, irrespective of race, creed, color, sex, national origin." 2:67.12.

I can find nothing in the Report bearing on the question of intellectual or other ability. The nearest that the Commission comes to this question is the statement: "Methods of allocating this sum within the several States should be on a basis which takes account of the number of each State's high school graduates and its total college age population." 2:67.5.

4.115 Indirect Aid: The Commission not only recommends direct financial aid to students, but it also "recommends the elimination of tuition and other required student fees in all publicly controlled colleges and universities in the thirteenth and fourteenth years; and a reduction beyond the fourteenth year, at least back to the level of 1938-39 tuition and fees...." 2:68.3.

4.12 Graduate and Professional Students:

4.121 Numbers: Aid, when plan in complete operation, to 30,000 students. 2:56.2.

4.122 Amount of Aid: "... each fellowship should be $1,500 a year...." 2:68.2 & 2:56.2.

4.123 Criterion of Aid: "The candidates should be selected on the basis of a national competitive examination..." 2:68.2.

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*All numbers in this section refer to the volumes and pages of the Truman Report.

Observe that ability is the criterion for the fellowships but not for the scholarships. At least, ability to pass a national competitive examination is specifically proposed for graduate and professional students. For undergraduates, on the contrary, "methods of allocating" aid is left to the discretion of each state.

4.13 Cost to the Federal Government for Such Student Aid: When the plan operates fully, the costs would be:

4.131 Graduate-Professional Student Aid: $45,000,000. I cannot find this figure specifically stated, but it comes from multiplying 30,000 fellowships by $1,500. See 2:68.2.

4.132 Total: $1,045,000,000 annually from the federal government. This, however, would be supplemented by state aid under the proposal that tuition fees, etc. be pushed back to 1938-39 levels. See Item 4.115 above.

4.2 Social Philosophy Behind The Truman Report: The Commission states its social philosophy in Volume One wherein appear such statements as these:

> "... the social role of education in a democratic society is at once to insure equal liberty and equal opportunity to differing individuals and groups...." 1:5.45.
>
> "In a real sense the future of our civilization depends on the direction education takes, not just in the distant future, but in the days immediately ahead." 1:7.3.

But it is difficult to quote the exact significance of the Report. One must read between the lines and interpret direct statements. My reading between the lines and my interpretation leads me to this conclusion: The Report is a vigorous expression of Jacksonian Democratic Thought. It stresses equality throughout. It also vehemently stresses throughout the elimination of all types of discriminations growing from race, color, creed, sex, or national origin.

Because I fervently believe in equality in terms of individual differences and because I too believe in eliminating discriminations, it's difficult to criticize the philosophy of the Report without seeming to be critical of these common tenets of democratic faith. Yet I must run the risk of being misunderstood, of being considered to be anti-democratic.

In the first place, the Report does not in my judgment put enough emphasis upon individual differences. Aid is to be given to undergraduates "primarily in terms of need" (2:67.5) and with no stated relationship to ability. As a Jeffersonian democrat I protest against this. It seems to me that need and ability must both be considered.

In the second place, I'm critical of the Report since it moves toward state control of all education. Clearly we need state aid from all governmental sources -- municipal, county, state, and federal. But we must also protect our alodial institutions in particular. But the Truman Commission says nothing about helping alodial institutions.* It ignores them except to observe that heavier weather lies ahead. It counsels the alodial institutions to go row their own boats, and one suspects hearing a chuckle from the Commission that the alodial institutions are in such serious trouble -- and with no relief in sight. The Commission members seem to be rubbing their hands and saying to themselves, "well, you can last a little while longer, but you'll soon fail and fall into the hands of the state. And THAT we'll welcome."

In the third place, I'm severely critical of the rhetorical base of the Report. It rings the changes again and again on DEMOCRACY, but it never says a word about the prosperity of the nation depending upon education. This has made for a seriously unbalanced argument. We Americans are committed to democracy, but we are also committed to a type of economic life, a way of life resting upon high production and wide distribution of wealth. This means to me that those who seek to develop and improve American education should organize their rhetoric with this decisive fact of American philosophy and psychology continously in mind. But the Commission did not do this! Instead it talked and talked and talked about democracy to the complete neglect of the other motivating factors that are involved.

Moreover, it's discussions of democracy were of a particular interpretation of democracy, to wit, Jacksonian democracy. Indeed, one can even interpret the Report to the effect that essentially the dominant group on the Commission really urged socialism or at least a battening statism which would eventually take the control of higher education entirely out of the hands of alodial and sectarian groups. The Commission's blatant neglect of the problems and the needs of alodial institutions helps support this interpretation.

But what should the Commission have written here? I have two suggestions: First, it should have made its social philosophy more explicit so that some of its own members as well as the public at large could understand the social and political premises on which the Report rests. That, I'm convinced, would have impelled a substantial percentage of the membership of the Commission to demand modifications in the Jacksonian postulates which now dominate the Report.

Second, the Commission should have given specific if not protracted attention to the relationship of education to the properity of the nation. Let me illustrate what I mean.

In 1903 Mr. A. Mosely, a British industrialist and engineer, brought a British Commission to the United States to investigate American education because he had become dramatically aware of

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*Neither church-connected nor controlled by civil government.

American industrial competition and of the relationship of American education to American industrial progress. His commisson came over to this country in the last three months of 1903 to discover what American education had that made our nation such a fearsome competitor of the British commerically and industrially.

Now I submit that the American people understand the language of economic utility better than they understand the controversial problems of Jacksonian vs Jeffersonian democracy and other such issues. I also submit that the Report would have been a better rhetorical instrument had it given these commercial and industrial considerations at least equal treatment with democratic issues.

Observe that I say "equal treatment!" Let us rid the country of all discriminations that interfere with each individual getting the kind of education that his abilities suggest. By all means let us continue to fight for equality of opportunity, but let us at the same time recognize that financial aid to students will come for economic reasons as well as for social philosophical reasons.

Topic Twelve

Health Services

Introduction: This lecture could easily be devoted to a discussion of the detailed operations of student health services, but such an undertaking would probably be boresome to most members of the class. Personnel people have little reason to be interested in such details, but all of you have literally vital interests in the health enterprise of society at large. In this lecture I shall give the major share of attention to the larger setting in which student health services function, and I shall devote only the last portion to their immediate operations.

1. The Two Great Historic Roads: Interest in health comes to modern man down two great historic roads: first, the road of esoteric knowledge about medicine and, second, the road of play. Both roads have been tremendoulsy widened and extended during the past century, and to understand why this is so, a look back at their status in the past will be illuminating.

1.1 Medicine:

1.11 The Mind-Body Dualism: Apparently most if not all peoples in the past have assumed a distinction between mind and body or -- more explicitly -- between the body and the soul. This dualism vitally influenced thethought given to bodily health, and this it must be briefly examined.

1.111 Plato seems to be the first thinker to give serious consideration to the problem of the nature of the soul. He postulated the tripartite soul: desire, anger, and reason. He also called them lusting, fighting, and thinking; and he honored the last as the controller of the other two. In his famous metaphor about the nature of the soul he likened lusting and fighting to two horses controlled by a charioteer, reason. Thus Plato honored Reason as the chief element of the soul, but he also gave the soul immortality. As a disciple of Pythagoras he accepted Asiatic mysticism and accepted the wide-spread doctrine of the transmigration of souls. As a Greek he accepted the attitudes dominant in his world relating to the body (body beauty and the importance of the physician), but essentially he gave his allegiance to other-worldliness.

1.112 Aristotle, on the other hand, had no interest in other-worldliness. On such matters he seems to have been an agnostic since he never discussed the nature of the soul's eternal destiny. Instead he gave all his thought to this life, and he assiduously researched biological data employing the 2000 men whom it is said that Alexander, his pupil, gave him to serve as his research assistants. He came to some amusing conclusions (read pp. 14-15 in WHC 45-4), but he stuck to his belief in the importance of the body and the necessity of understanding biological principles. Plato abhorred empirical research of all kinds, but Aristotle gave it the place of honor.

1.113 Plato's thinking won out in Europe over Aristotle's and dominated Europe until the thirteenth century. Then Aristotle's writings came into Europe from Islam, and by the beginning of the seventeenth century the experimental point of view of Aristotle came into its own again after about 2000 years of neglect.

1.114 Descartes stated modern mind-body dualism in his famous epigram Cogito, ergo sum: I think, therefore I am. This a long stride ahead since it replaced the other-worldly dualism which had dominated Europe for so many centuries. It epitomized the return to Aristotle and the abandonment of Plato's mysticism: it set up Reason -- scientific Reason -- upon the throne again, and men began once more to investigate the nature of the body as, indeed, they began to investigate everything else through reason, through research.

1.115 Many modern thinkers have abandoned dualism and consider the question of the destiny of the soul to be unanswerable. Many, of course, have not. Both groups, however, now honor the necessity of knowledge of the body and its laws. The question of the destiny of the soul continues unsolved, but the body is now accepted and studied by all Western philosophy.

1.12 The Body Glorified versus the Body Disdained: The Greeks loved beauty, all kinds of beauty including bodily beauty. Their Olympic games a pinnacles of their attitude. Plato accepted this love of bodily beauty and even went so far as to write in The Republic: "As for the man who laughs at the idea of undressed women going through gymnastic exercises as a means of revealing what is most perfect, his ridicule is but unripe fruit plucked from the tree of wisdom." Book V. But the Platonic stress upon the mystical nature of the soul and the despair of his successors (and of most men after the death of Alexander) over the distressed state of the world made them retreat into the soul and into an eventual disdain of the body. The Christian world accentuated this attitude which reached its most dramatic height in the behavior of St. Simon Stylites (390-459) who lived on a stone pillar "for thirty years without ever descending," and whose austerities were undertaken to inflict and subdue the body. EB 20:695.3. "Simon had many imitators, well authenticated pillar-hermits being met with till the 16th century."

Puritanism brought body-disdaining to the American colonies, but many forces have counterbalanced it. Now we have had Ziefield! But regardless of excesses, accepting and even beautifying the body has been going on apace for at least a century; and this has had much to do with the progress made in personal and community health.

1.13 Medical Research: In addition to other-worldliness, another attitude interferred with the development of knowledge of the body: the disdain for labor. After the days of Galen (2nd century A.D.) investigations in the functionings and structure of the body stopped because, in addition to other-worldliness, men didn't want to get their hands dirty in dissecting dead bodies. At least, this was the explanation that Vesalius gave when he did the first dissections of the human body during his short but influential life (1514-64). The Inquisition called for his life because of his dissections, but he made a pilgrimage to the Holy Land in 1564 in penance and soon died a natural death.

During Vesalius' century and immediately thereafter medical research spread, and everyone knows of the work of William Harvey (1578-1657) who discovered the fact of the circulation of the blood, of Edward Jenner (1749-1823) who discovered the principle of immunization through vaccination, of Pasteur (1822-95) who established bacteriology, et al, et al. Medical research has been booming -- as everyone knows -- and has enormous prestige, such overwhelming prestige, in fact, that one can hardly imagine the centuries of body-disdaining before the days of Vesalius.

Most of the research given plaudits has been related to the body per se, but during this century huge progress has been made in understanding the nature of the mind. Here Janet, Charcot, and Freud have been the pioneers -- along with academic psychologists whose interests have not been related to health. Currently we watch the rise of psychsomatic medicine which postulates that very mental state influences the body and visa versa. The mental hygiene enterprise has, of course, been of great significance in student health services.

1.2 Play: Play related to leisure and also to one's conception of the importance of bodily health and beauty. Play has also had a fascinating history, and the high spots must here be noted.

1.21 The Greek World: I've already described the Hellenic attitude toward bodily beauty and their honoring of it in their Olympic and comparable games.

1.22 The Christian World: The disdain of the body promoted by St. Paul chiefly. He seems to have been plagued all his life by sexual inhibitions and fears, and this apparently had much to do with the Christian attitude. See articles in the 7-19-47 issue of the Saturday Review of Literature by Edith Hamilton (PN 1023.561). In any event, the Christian world disdained the body and therefore bodily playing for youths and adults.

1.23 Chivalry: The Age of Chivalry cut into the body-disdaining attitude. It came into Europe from the Islamic world after the crusades and constituted a vigorous reaction against the ideals of monasticism. From it arose sports for gentlemen who were, of course, also soldiers. The tournaments of the late Middle Ages a return to the idea behind the Olympic Games.

1.24 Play in America: Not important until the mid-19th century because all the physical energies of Americans taken up by the exploiting and colonizing of the country. The first intercollegiate athletic event 1852: a crew race on Lake Winnepesaukee (N.H.) between Harvard and Yale with Charles W. Eliot in the Harvard shell.* Horse racing very old of course as also folk dancing, etc.; but baseball not invented (by Colonel Abner Doubleday) until 1839 and not really established until 1858 when the predecessor of the present National League organized. Soccer and rugby formulized in England during the first half of the 19th century coming to us from English schools and universities. The first intercollegiate game played November 23, 1869 between Princeton and Rutgers with 15-man teams without uniforms. A dozen preeminent public and collegiate games have since been developed and popularized. Organized play has become, as everyone knows, a major interest of all modern peoples and especially of Americans where all classes participate. England meanwhile has been hampered by the control of sports by the "gentleman."

2. The Health of College Students: Much of this history may seem farfetched to some of you, but it bears directly upon the development of student health services. This will be clear from the following:

2.1 The Health of Students Before the Civil War: Epidemics on college campus frequent and often deadly. The lack of medical knowledge and the religious disdain of the body largely responsible. Someone interested in student health might well write a paper bringing together the dramatic but disasterous facts about health on college campuses!

2.2 The First Health Enterprise: At Amherst in 1859 President W. A. Stearns established the first health effort for students: he appointed a physician to look after the health of students and to develop physical education.

2.3 The Development of Gymnasiums: These began to be built in all the eastern colleges about the same time. Here the influence of Oxford and Cambridge had great importance as well as the games ideas and ideals of the German Jahn and the Turner movement. Cite also the importation of it by Lieber.

2.4 The Development of Medical Education: The original American medical school that organized at the University of Pennsylvania about the time of the Revolution. Harvard, Yale, Columbia, and other institutions later established medical schools, but the great and decisive development came with the opening of the Johns Hopkins Hospital and medical department in 1891. Here German influences decisive and powerful, indeed revolutionary. Cite the condition of medical education when William James took his degree at Harvard soon after the Civil War. See James' biography of Eliot Vol. 1, p. 290.

2.5 The Spread of Intercollegiate Athletics: Covered in Item 1.24 above.

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*Later - 1857 race.

2.6 The Much Slower Development of Intramural Athletics: Much less prestige, much less money, etc. But the ideal of play for adult years grows. The relationship to health stressed -- which, of course, isn't true for intercollegiat athletics: many studies demonstrate that the health of intercollegiate athelts impaired.

2.7 Instruction in Personal Hygiene: I cannot discover the date of the initiation of instruction in personal hygiene in the colleges, but it seems to be a development of the twentieth century. If any one can refer me to the authoritative sources, I'd be grateful.

3. Health Services: A good deal of work has been done on the history of organized student health services, but I haven't been able to get it organized in time for this lecture. Thus for the nonce I can do no more than refer you to the writings which seem to me to be the most illuminating: Dr. William P. Shepard of Stanford. See Diehl's The Health of American College Students, 1939, etc. See Diehl and Shepard entries in the PBL and also the writings of Dr. Ruth E. Boynton, the present head of the Minnesota Student Health Service.

4. The Political Jumble in Health, Physical Education, and Health Services: The enterprise of student health bogs down in part because of the political pulling and hauling between the three agencies interested in one or more of the elements of student health. These are 1) the student health service people who now, in general, operate independently; 2) the physical education people, and 3) the intercollegiate athletic people who, in most institutions, control physical education. Of these three the last group has by all odds the greatest power because it deals in financial and prestige power: they bring in money to the university coffers and they enhance the prestige (among the public at least) of the institution as well as the prestige of individual players. Thus they dominate the scene. Thus, also, physical education has been made the vassal, the underprivileged third cousin of the athletic lords. The Health Service has managed to keep reasonably clear of this situation, but it is influenced by it.

Until athletics (intercollegiate athletics) loses some of its hold on the general public and upon students, the political jumble will continue with the people in physical education being victimized. Meanwhile the health service has another problem. See below.

5. The Problem of Socialized Medicine: A student health service is a kind of group medicine. Students pay term fees for health service, and the money is used to serve the small percentage of students who needs medical care. These students are served by physicians associated with the health service, and this means that they do not resort to private physicians unless they want to pay extra fees. Most depend entirely on the student health service, and thus a variety of socialized medicine prevails.

The American Medical Association and the County Medical Associations have not been unaware of this development, and they have fought it. Such a fight developed here at Stanford last year when the University made a contract with the Palo Alto Clinic to supplement its services for special medical care and to extend medical care to students living in Palo Alto. I do not know the details of the row, but I do know that the Santa Clara Medical Association fought both the University and the

Palo Alto Clinic. But the details aren't important here. The significant fact is this: that the Stanford situation illustrates 1) a variety of socialized medicine and 2) the fight of local physicians against this development at Stanford.

6. Intimations of Future Developments: The development of recent decades suggest the nature of the road ahead. It seems to me that the road will include the following developments concerning which personnel people should be alert:

   6.1 More Institutional Medicine: Industrial and business organizations also support health services and thus promote a variety of socialized medicine. I look for more of this in the future. Since most employed or working Americans are employees (90%), much of the medical care of Americans will be provided in the future by institutionalized medicine in the sense in which I here use the term, i.e., medical services provided by the economic and educational institutions with which one is associated.

   6.2 Group Medicine of Other Sorts: The employees of large business organizations often have all their health needs taken care of by the company, but this isn't widespread. Faculty members of Stanford, for example, are not served by the Student Health Service. The local physicians won't permit. Thus group medicine is being provided through various kind of hospitalization and health-surgery plans organized on insurance bases. We'll have more of this and thus approach socialized medicine, here too, through the back door.

   6.3 Greater Stress Upon Mental Hygiene: This so obvious as not to need development.

   6.4 Greater Stress on Adult Games: The physical education people have been promoting this for several decades. They urge college students to learn the non-combative games which they can play as adults: golf, tennis, archery, etc. This seems to me to be a sure-fire development of the future.

   6.5 Intercollegiate Athletics: They will wane in favor of professional sports. Before long we'll have some very putrid scandal which will either clean up intercollegiate athletics or force them out of the colleges. Let's hope it will be the former since intercollegiate athletics have such great value. But meanwhile the public demands more and more hippodroming, and the best elements in society demand honesty. Cite Morrill's speech of last winter. Who knows what will happen?

   6.6 Health to Improve: Most important of all general health will improve. It has been improving for a century as witness the increased height and weight of youths, the increased longevity of the nation, and the conquering of many major diseases. Thus the science of geronatology will develop, and many personnel people in this group here today will end their careers as geronatologists!

7. The Administration of Student Health Services: I have classified student health services under the classification of services to individual students, but this structural unit also undertakes a number of group functions. This will be clear from the following list of functions.

7.1 Functions:

7.11 Services to Individual Students: Health counsel and treatment constitute the two chief functions of student health services. Such work includes a) appraisal at admissions, b) annual check-ups, c) routine services as necessary including hospitalization.

7.12 Community Services: Prevention of disease by means of a) check-ups of food and food handlers, b) routine examination of swimming pools, sanitary arrangements over the campus, etc, c) innoculations to prevent epidemics, etc.

7.2 Structure: On many campuses the Health Service operates as a separate entity or is a division of the College of Medicine. In my judgment either arrangement is erroneous. The Student Health Service should be under the direction of the Dean of Students or of whoever performs the coordinating function for SPW. Many conflicts of vested interests here, but the coordinator of SPW must vigorously work to bring the health service under his direction. Why? Because health services for students must be coordinated with all other services for students. This cannot be achieved unless the chief personnel coordinator controls and directs the service.

7.3 Fees: The practice of including a student health fee in the fixed charges of students spreads over the country. And this is desirable.

But many political issues here revolving about the reluctance of the medical profession to encourage anything that seems to smack of group medicine. But the trend is clear: group medicine for students has become a reality in many places, and it seems likely to grow considerably further.

Incidentally, colleges and universities ought to perform health services for faculty members and their families -- or at least for faculty members. Industrial organizations have been doing this for a long while, and so why not colleges and universities? The answer is that industrial organizations have great economic power and can therefore do much as they please. On the other hand, colleges and universities must depend upon public good will -- including the good will of the physicians in their communities. But the time will come, probably, when health services also serve faculty members and perhaps their families.

7.4 General Political Observation: The student health service sector of [illegible] abounds with thorny political questions with both physicians and the atheletic group. These vested interests have great power, and hence the SPW coordinator must be a man of infinite tact and persuasiveness -- but also of high determination.

Student Personnel Services in American Higher Education

Part Four

Relations With and Services for Students in Groups

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Thirteenth Lecture

The Extracurriculum

Introduction: It's ridiculous to try to handle the extracurriculum in one lecture, but the attempt must be made.

1. Terminology: Observe that I do-not use the term "extra-curricular activities." I have an aversion for this piece of jabberwocky for a number of reasons and, in particular, because of the implication that the curriculum does not involve activity. See my University of Minnesota address, "Jabberwocky Vs Maturity" on this score. Also observe the evolution of terminology here:

1.1 Student Life: The term employed for centuries -- until the 2nd decade of this century.

1.2 The Term Developed 1911-1915: A student, working on individual study, is now engaged in the enterprise of discovering when the term "extra-curricular activities" came into initial usage. His work isn't yet finished, but he has discovered that it appeared in the literature first between 1911 and 1915. Apparently it came into higher education from secondary education. Apparently, also, it followed a distinction being made between "the academic curriculum" and "student life," "student affairs," etc.

Note the date of 1911-15. This was the period in which students abhorred the impersonalism of their research-minded instructors, the period during which, literally, the curriculum did not involve much activity.

1.3 The Term "The Cocurriculum": Recently employed and encouraged by some secondary educators and by a small group of people in higher education who also dislike the term "extra-curricular activities" and who believe that what I call the extracurriculum deserves high stress.

1.4 The Term "Campus Activities": This the term used by the Truman Commission. See 1:60-61. Along with the sponsors of the term "the cocurriculum," the members of the Truman Commission also seemed to object to the distinction between the curriculum and the extracurriculum and thus: "... the notion that these activities are extracurricular stands in the way" of their acceptance as educationally importance.

1.5 The Term "The Extracurriculum": Not included in Good's Dictionary of Education but included in Webster's NID. Yet in Webster's only as an adjective. I employ it as a noun, and the Webster definition will do with the words "pertaining to" dropped. In brief, the extracurriculum constitutes the enterprises of student life not part of regular courses of study.

Observe the effort of some elementary and secondary educators to obscure the distinction between the curriculum and the extracurriculum by holding that everything that happens within the educational situation must be considered to be part of the curriculum. See Curriculum Development, 1935, by Caswell and Campbell, 69.3:

> "The curriculum ... is held to be composed of the actual experience which children undergo under the guidance of the school."

This obliterating of the distinction between the curriculum and the extracurriculum has no status in higher education. We clearly have two divisions here, and the criterion is credit toward graduation.

The people who promote the term "the cocurriculum" (observe that Good includes this term in his Dictionary) admit the inevitability of the distinction, but they employ a term which stresses the equal importance of student life with formal educational life. I agree to the importance of both, but I would not stress the conception of equality. Why? Because it seems to me to be antagonistic to the educational -- the formal educational -- efforts of colleges and universities. This lecture will show that I honor the importance of these enterprises of student life at least as highly as the sponsors of the new term, but I employ the noun form of a well-established phrase because it rings familiarly on professors' ears and is not likely therefore to stir up their animus.

2. Definition: The Webster definition will do, but it seems to me that it might well be refined to read something like this:

> The enterprises of student life as distinguished from the enterprises of formal education in colleges and universities and schools. Some are managed entirely by students, some entirely by educational authorities for students, and some jointly by both students and educational authorities. The extracurriculum constitutes an important kind of informal education, but much of it is formalized by the students themselves when they establish rules for publishing newspapers, for managing teams, proms, etc.

This definition could be improved, but it emphasizes the fact of informal education. It also stresses the distinction between the curriculum and the extracurriculum; and this distinction must in my judgment be kept continuously in mind. The curriculum and the extracurriculum differ from one another else why all the pother about different terminology?

3. The Rise and the Lure of the Extracurriculum: Abundant student life through the centuries of course, but no organized student enterprises (other than housing during the Middle Ages) until well into the 19th century. The major push after the Civil War when 1) student enrolments zoomed, 2) research came to dominate the thinking of professors, and 3) German impersonalism invaded the American college.

The Old American College had been a religiously paternalistic institution, and students reacted to that kind of handling with riots and rebellions. But the typical college student of the post-Civil War period didn't like the new regime either. As far as he was concerned the soulless college and university of the new order appealed to him no more than the school-boy paternalism of the old-type college. He paid his respects to the Noah Porters by heaving red-hot coals into their windows, by pelting them with chestnuts in their classrooms, by burning down their academic building and their homes, and by blowing tin horns under their windows late into the night. But to the Eliots he responded even more disdainfully: he ignored them and all their works.

Finding their new programs (just as Porter predicted in his 1870 book, p. 228) over his emotional if not his intellectual head, he submitted docilely during class hours, but he rushed out of lectures and laboratories when the bell rang to metamorphosize into an animated, ambitious human being thirsty for relief from the boredom of scholarly minutia and learned abstractions. He threw himself into athletic contests with an ardor that amazed and annoyed his professors. He set about organizing a social life which led to the successful raising of money for the building of fraternities houses, for the hiring of expensive orchestras for proms and house parties, for elaborate newspaper and magazine publications. He sat up night after night into the small hours hatching and materializing his plans for his personally conceived and personally managed educational program -- the Extracurriculum. With all the energies of his youth thus stirred, he turned out a daily newspaper to tell his fellows about their athletic teams, their dramatic enterprises, their proms, their fraternities, their self-governing bodies, and their dozens of other extra-curricular endeavors. In short, he organized a life of his own completely different from that dominated by the faculty and, at the same time, largely devoid of the academic values which the faculty represented. He did **his** minimum of drudgery in order to stay in college, but he frowned on anyone who earned more than a C and called any who did "weirs," "wet-smacks," "grubbers," and "greasy grinds."

He did this because of the inability of the faculty to arouse him to interest in his intellectual development and also because of his recognition of the fact that between 1870 and 1930 American life needed other qualities -- and would reward other qualities -- more handsomely. The curriculum would make of him only a "scholar" or "a scientist," but the country during this period needed entrepreneurs skilled in competitive manipulation. Thus writes Henry Seidel Canby in Alma Mater: pp. 72-74:

> "This life was clearly an education. Its code was definite and hard.... This code also recognized and required competition as the test of life. There was no fiercer competition in the business world than the undergraduate competition for social rewards. Beside its strenuosities the pursuit of marks or even of scholarship glowed dimly.... This code of competition in, but also very definitely for, the group brought with it other virtues, such as loyalty, tenacity, generosity, courage, and a willingness to co-operate, which made the college career, so trivial in its immediate objectives, so irrelevant to the purposes of scholarship, nobler, or at least less selfish and sordid, than the power-seeing society for which it was obviously a preparation."

Thus arose the extracurriculum. And as everyone knows it flourished. And not only because of the training it gave in competition! The extracurriculum was not a means to an end only: it was an end in itself, a romatic life for its own sake -- indeed, a highly romantic life contrasting vividly with the dullness of the life in money-mad American towns and cities. Here too Canby describes his motivations aptly:

> Why did they go to college, these thousands upon mounting thousands that crowded into the campuses? .... They came for the best of reasons. They swarmed from the drab existence of a small town or commercial city... because they had heard of college life, where instead of the monotony of school discipline or the bourgeois experience which had succeeded their confident childhood, there was singing, cheering, drinking, and the keenest competition for honor and prestige, a life rich in the motives which were being stifled in the struggle for power in the adult world outside. They desired romance, they sought distinction, and were not unwilling to spend some bookish labor in order to win the opportunities of a class which called itself educated....
>
> From a commonplace family in a commonplace town, with no prospect but a grind of money-making and association with other stuffy nobodies, the youngster... might hope to pass by his own native abilities into the brave, translunary world of great cities and the gilded corridors of their privileged set.... From henceforth he would not be Jones of Columbus, but Jones of "Bones" of some other tight-ringed fraternity. Thanks to his ability to catch a ball, or to organize, or to be friendly, or to drink like a gentleman, or even to capitalize his charm, he was taped as of the elect at age 20 or 21 and had precisely the advantage... which rank and privilege still gave in the Old World... And all this he himself could win, unaided by the power of money or the accident of social position.... pp. 68-72.

In short, the extracurriculum arose and rapidly lured students to college not to study but rather to thrill to the throb of college life. The curriculum seemed dull and stupid and the faculty mere bookworms and laboratory grubbers, but the extracurriculum pulsed with drama, and it flourished. Its development represents the greatest bootlegging enterprise in American life: student bootlegged life, as they called it, into the mumified existence of the museum called the American College.

4. Historic Periods in the Development of the Extracurriculum: In his book from which I have quoted, Alma Mater, Canby described the life at Yale in the 1890's and the first decade of this century. There have been changes since, and so we must describe the historic periods of the extracurriculum. (Incidentally, besides Alma Mater, published 1936, Canby writes of the extracurriculum of that period in his 1947 book American Memoir, pp. 133-161).

4.1 Residential Housing Period: 1200-1400 in the medieval universities of Europe. Students helped organize houses, halls and hostels for their own residence. The educational authorities, however, took these over from students.

4.2 Unorganized Period - 1400-1850: During this long period little if any organized student life but much unorganized student life often leading to riots and rebellions, town and gown fights, etc.

Debating developed at Oxford during the first half of the 19th century, but I do not know the date that the Oxford Union arose.

Nor the date of athletics arising there. A paper might be written here by some interested student.

In the USA a few literary magazines arose before the Civil War and also some debating. Dates here also wanting.

4.3 The Boom Period - 1870-1930: Described above.

4.4 The Settling-Down Period 1930- : Long before 1930 the extracurriculum had become firmly established, but beginning in about 1910 it started to lose its excessive glamor, and the Depression beginning in 1929 made students infinitely more serious minded. Then came the war. Now, the war's aftermath, GI's more or less ignore the extracurriculum; and even incoming freshmen are more serious-minded -- as well they might be in today's world -- than their predecessors of the 1920's and before.

The first attack on the validity of the extracurriculum came in 1910 when President A. Lawrence Lowell of Harvard published his study of the relationship of undergraduate grades at Harvard to success in Harvard professional schools. See Educ. Review, October, 1911, pp. 217-33, PBI, Item 70. Lowell demonstrated that success in professional school depended largely under success in undergraduate work, and also that success in graduate school conditioned success in one's career. This study has a tremendous influence on Harvard students; and, together with Lowell's educational reforms including comprehensive examinations, the tutorial system, etc., shot up the number of students weeking academic honors from about 2% in 1909 to about 40% in 1933 when he retired. Thus the curriculum came into competition with the extracurriculum -- at least at Harvard.

Meanwhile other educators had attacked the power of the extracurriculum. For example, in 1899 President William Rainey Harper of Chicago had deplored the "waste" of undergraduate indifference to the curriculum, and in 1901 he went after the problem again. See The Trend in Higher Education, pp. 78-117 and pp. 312-16. Also Lord Bryce in The American Commonwealth, 1888, had deplored the intellectual indifferentism of college students, and in 1902-03 the famous Briggs Committee at Harvard had investigated the situation to discover that Harvard students were loafing through college or giving many times more attention to the extracurriculum than to the curriculum. Lowell was a member of this committee, and his study of 1911 and his reforms of the same period resulted from these Briggs Committee discoveries.

But the country at large did not undertake any serious attack on the extracurriculum until the Depression prepared the ground. The Depression made students more serious-minded, and educational changes such as honors courses, faculty control committees, etc. arrived to take some of the glamor away from the extracurriculum.

Thus during this period the extracurriculum settled down into an accepted but less romantic series of enterprises. In short, it had come of age and became formalized and better controlled.

5. Types of Extracurricular Enterprises: Today we can categorize the extracurriculum, and here is a suggested classification:

5.1 Athletic: Discussed in the last lecture. Of importance here is Jesse F. Williams' article in the January, 1949 issue of the JHE wherein he holds that athletics are corrupt but cannot be substantially reformed until the forces of American life which make it subservient to pecuniary motives are generally curbed.

5.2 Non-Athletic: This can be broken down into many sub-divisions such as publications, debating, dramatics, etc. I cannot stop to discuss each of these divisions -- that would take a series of lectures or a book.

5.3 Residential Life: Not an organized student enterprise like the others, but clearly a vital part of the extracurriculum. Cite Mr. Stimson's high praise of it at Hamilton and the equally high praise of hundreds, thousands, of others.

5.4 New Type Non-Athletic: Much cooperation developing between academic departments and the extracurriculum. This cooperation of two kinds:

5.41 Departments Take Over: This has happened in journalism, dramatics etc. I'm not sure that it's a good development, but it's here. Journalism, music and speech have, in fact, arisen as new instructional departments on the base of extracurricular enterprises originally established by students.

5.41 Student's Ranging Interests: More student interest in non-competitive enterprises such as civic activities, [self-government,] social service. Also more stress today on concerts, lectures, plays, forums. Also at Harvard and Yale resident masters and tutors stimulate much extracurricular discussion and reading. Honor courses at about 150 other institutions work in the same direction.

5.5 Intercollegiate Non-Athletic Organizations: These have long existed in debating, etc., but now we witness a substantial growth of student forums, organizations like the National Student Association, and also of left-wing groups like the communistic dominated AYD - American Youth for Democracy.

This classification has its limitations, but it perhaps serves to show the expansion of the extracurriculum.

6. Criticism of the Extracurriculum: I have cited those of Harper, Lowell, et al, but the chief criticisms come from people like Hutchins who would eliminate the extracurriculum entirely. Here he has many supporters amongst professors who do not agree with him on other issues. In season and out Hutchins has deplored the extracurriculum both in terms of its objectives and its activities. Thus he writes:

> The university is "not a custodial institution, or a church, or a body-building institution. No Friendly Voice, p. 82.

> Higher education should renounce the purpose "to turn out well-tubbed young Americans who" merely get in college what "is advertised by every resort hotel." HLA, 28-29.
>
> He is opposed to "physical and moral welfare" of students, to stress on "conduct and health," to "athletics and social life," etc. HLA, 10-11.
>
> He justifies all this denunciation with the statement that "the objective of education is the production of intelligent citizens." NFV, 20.

I will not stop to analyze the Hutchins position except to say that he and those who agree with him are intellectualists who assert that the prime and, indeed, the only important function of higher education is intellectual training. In November 1943 (PN 341.63) Hutchins modified this a bit by writing that "education is the formation of moral and intellectual habits," but he continues to be an intellectualist.

Thousands of professors agree with Hutchins here. They too are intellectualists and therefore believe that the extracurriculum should be curtailed if not abandoned entirely.

7. Defense of the Extracurriculum: The critics yammer, but the defenders of the extracurriculum have prestige and power too. They include some outstanding American thinkers and administrators. I quote but a few of them:

Santayana: For Harvard students in his day as student and professor: "college life their true education... in friendship, cooperation, freedom." PN 257.258.

Professor H. B. Adams: (Johns Hopkins University Pioneer in Social Science research and scholarship): His work as an undergraduate on The Amherst Student his real education at Amherst. American Masters of Social Science, p. 102.

Meiklejohn: College without the extracurriculum "a sorry place in which to live." The Liberal College, 98-104.

Cardinal Newman: Cite his famous passage that students educate one another better than professors.

Stephen Leacock: Cite his statement that the smoking room is the most important room in a college.

8. Values of the Extracurriculum: The defenders have worsted the critics, and so the extracurriculum continues and flourishes. My own position is described in my article in The New Republic of April, 1926 entitled "Explaining the Rah Rah Boy." Therein I maintain that the extracurriculum prospers because of the dullness of the curriculum and that to have the extracurriculum put into its proper place in college life the curriculum and teaching must be vastly improved. This means that the extracurriculum has its proper place in college life -- and because it has these values:

8.1 Promotes Sense of Belonging: This a primary urge of all people, and the extracurriculum gives it brilliantly. If students don't get it under the auspices of colleges and universities, they will get it elsewhere -- and in less desirable places. Hutchins et al ignore the importance of belongingness.

8.2 Develops Ability in Human Relations: The essense of Mayo's book Social Problems of an Industrial Civilization is the conviction -- bolstered with much evidence -- that the greatest need of man today is vastly improved skill, in human relations. See 11.4 particularly. The extracurriculum gives infintely better training in human relations than the curriculum.

8.3 Social Skill and Self-Confidence: Part of the problem of education in human relations. Mayo stresses it, and Canby writes about it eloquently.

8.4 Civic Spirit: Clear in self-government activities but also present in athletics, etc. Indidentally leads to alumni support of colleges and universities financially. No country in the world has anything comparable. Much sophomorism continues into alumnihood, but that's better than indifferentisism.

8.5 Training in Competition: Stressed by Canby in the passages quoted and still important since we continue to be a competitive society.

8.6 Career Value: Cite the AT&T studies of Gifford and Bridgman cited in the PBI. Business organizations have come to see that extracurricular experience has potent predictive value in careers.

8.7 Youthful Romance: Youth is a period of vivid energy and demand for romance. The extracurriculum gives this as does nothing else in American life other than war. Take this romance away and students become a sort of disruption in society as they are so often in Europe and Latin-American countries.

8.8 Utility: Riots, rebellions gone.

9. The Administration of the Extracurriculum: I'll cover this in my lecture on the administration of SPW, but here I would make one important point: the extracurriculum as such must be administered by young men and women who retain an understanding and an interest in student romance and its many manifestations. Oldsters forget their youthful urges and in general are poor administrators of the extracurriculum. Of course, among administrators we also have some perpetual sophomores, but they have limited utility, usually, in the SPW program in general.

10. Prognosis: Some notions about the future:

10.1 The intellectualists will not overwhelm the extracurriculum.

10.2 But more and more will the extracurriculum be absorbed by the curriculum as in journalism and music and dramatics.

10.3 The range of the extracurriculum will expand and include many more of the enterprises described in Item 5.4 above. This will be good.

10.4 The energies of students will turn from the extracurriculum to political agitation unless we continue to have an expanding economy. I have pointed this out in my June, 1948 article in the JHE about the Truman Report.

10.5 We'll slowly have more studies of student mores and student demography which will increase our understanding of the extracurriculum. The sooner the better.

Topic Fourteen

Services Usually Performed by the Institution

Introduction: Most people usually assume that the extracurriculum belongs entirely to the students, but this isn't so. Colleges and universities also have a stake in it and, indeed, manage a number of the most important of the extracurricular services. In this lecture we discuss these services.

1. Food Services: Like marriage, the business of serving food is an "ancient and honorable estate," although students have not always judged the people preparing it for serving to be honorable. Often they have found their food too "ancient" to be edible, and they have rioted and rebelled in protest. Historically, but not necessarily chronologically, the following practices have held sway:

   1.1 Eating on the Town: The point of view that feeding students is no business of an educational institution and that therefore students should get their food wherever they might be inclied: at boarding houses, in greasy spoon restaurants, etc. This the original scheme, apparently in the medieval universities. Definitely the scheme in 19th century German universities and in large urban institutions in the United States. Under this plan impersonalism reigns.

   1.2 Serving Food in Commons: This the English college system and the system adopted by early American colleges. The food so often bad that vicious riots resulted. See Mrs. Bevis's book Riots and Diets. An even better book could be written since the history of American higher education before the Civil War revolves about food serving and the problems created by serving bad food.

   1.3 Serving Food in Fraternity Houses and Clubs: In every society the occasion of serving food has become both a social and a ceremonial event, and thus students have organized on their own to capitalize on the potentialities of meal-time. Fraternities owe much of their strength to the comaraderie developed during meals in talk and in singing, and so also do clubs such as the eating clubs at Princeton, Dartmouth, etc. Clubs are often owned by student-alumni groups, but sometimes (as at Dartmouth) they are managed and owned by private individuals.

   1.4 Today the Business Manager Dominates Food Serving: Serving food amounts to big business in large institutions, and thus the responsibility has generally been assigned to the business manager. This has its merits since the enterprise must be economically and efficiently run, but it also has its limitations since the business manager often puts economy and efficiency ahead of the social and educational opportunities of mealtime. In every institution in which this is true the personnel people are failing to do their proper job in this important personnel area.

   1.5 The Personnel Point of View in Food Services: Personnel people have two responsibilities at least in relationship to food services:

1) to see that the food served is hygienic, adequate, well-balanced, and tastefully served, and 2) to see that the atmosphere in which food is served stimulates good conversation and happy comaraderie. The actual operation of food serving agencies should continue in the hands of business manager and his staff of dieticians, but the personnel people responsible for student group life should push for the proper arrangements in the councils of the president and his immediate advisors. This principle should ever be rememberd: MEALTIME IS A POWERFUL SOCIAL AND EDUCATIONAL OCCASION. Illustrate at Dartmouth, the University of Chicago, Etc.

2. Student Housing: For the background on this service historically considered, see my 1934 article in School and Society entitled "The History of Student Residential Housing." The same observations as made above for food services apply here -- and with even greater force. STUDENT RESIDENCES ARE POTENT SOCIAL AND EDUCATIONAL AGENCIES, and educators throw away golden opportunities for the development of their students when they fail to capitalize on the potentials of student housing. The problem of capitalizing on the opportunities of housing is, of course, financial; and so we must have a look at some of the issues here.

2.1 Impersonalism: Housing students, according to this view, is no concern of educational institutions; and thus it follows that no money need be spent to provide student residences. Impersonalism results usually from intellectualism, but it sometimes follows from financial impotence and amounts to a rationalization of the inability of an institution to raise funds for housing students.

2.2 "The Needless Expense" Argument: This a variety of impersonalism, but it's of the rationalization variety. Currently Conant holds it. See his Sachs Lectures published in the November, 1945 issue of Teacher's College Record and page 284.7 of the Journal of Higher Education for June, 1947. Conant sees a great expansion of what he calls "advanced education," (he avoids the term higher education) especially on the junior college level, and he proposes that this expanding junior college education (he also avoids the term "junior college") "should as far as possible be provided locally." But housing cannot be provided for these hordes of new students, and so he calls the providing of housing a "needless expenditure of public money." P. 284.7 JHE, June, 1947.

2.21 Critique of This Position: The underlying assumption here is that education is something that happens to the mind of the student only, in brief, it's intellectualism unadorned. But personnel people hold that the "whole student" must be educated -- is in fact educated, and that the quality of that education depends upon the facilities available for out-of-class education. Conant et al must either accept intellectualism or admit that they are proposing an inferior brand of education for the masses moving into the junior colleges and other institutions above the high school. But Conant is unwilling to admit this since in his Sachs Lectures in particular he goes all out for educational equality. Thus he is forced into the arms of intellectualism. He's uncomfortable there too, but there he stands wriggling and writhing uncomfortably.

2.22 *A Possible Solution*: A campaign to convince the public that housing students is also an educational enterprise and must be supported. This is, of course, a matter of timing: the public at this juncture must, in all likelihood, be educated to furnish the funds for instruction, but in due course they must also be educated to furnish the funds for housing students on campuses. The housing units need not be elaborate. They might well be of the barracks type as at the Tower Club of Ohio State. Much progress made since the war in the getting of Army installations such as Stanford Village. These will serve for many decades and will perhaps help to furnish housing for non-veterans. Especially in clement temperatures, inexpensive housing can be furnished students.

2.23 *The Personnel Position on Housing*: Student residential housing provides vitally important educational services when education is broadly conceived to include the whole student, the student who needs social, emotional, cooperative education. Not to provide housing and to permit students to live at home or in rooming houses is to support intellectualism and impersonalism, the banes of adequate education.

3. *Freshmen Orientation*: The effort made at many institutions to help orient their freshman, upon arrival, to the life and work of the institution. The enterprise became a conscious effort first, it appears, in 1924 when President C. C. Little of the University of Maine (later President of the University of Michigan) invented "Freshman Week." Freshman Week, or sometimes called "Freshman Days," may be stilted and limited, but the occasion furnishes a huge opportunity for innoculating the new student with the spirit of the institution as well as for getting a lot of mechanical clerical work done. A good orientation program should include: 1) *appraisal* + placement tests, etc., 2) social events, 3) the learning of the geography of the campus, 4) descriptions of student life by faculty members and student leaders, 5) a ritualistic initiation into the mores of the campus, 6) making friends with classmates, and 7) senior advisers to the freshman.

   But by "freshman orientation" another enterprise is also often meant, namely, the "orientation course" required of all freshmen in a particular college of a university.--Cite the orientation courses at Ohio State. Personnel people usually teach these courses, but in my judgment they are not personnel work *per se* since students get credit for the course. Since the time of the end of this course rapidly approaches, I shan't stop to develop this item.

4. *Religious Program*: Because of the secularization of American society we have come a long way from the days of a century ago when the colleges required (Williams, for example) fourteen *compulsory* religious meetings (chapels) a week plus making available four voluntary prayer meetings. Since 1876, the compulsory chapel exercise has waned and in most institutions has disappeared. (Cornell 1868.) I cite 1876 because in that year Johns Hopkins opened, and President Gilman announced that a daily chapel exercise would be held but that "no one would notice" who did or did not attend. Harvard followed in 1886 by making its chapel voluntary,

and the parade has been on ever since -- although some few institutions still require attendance at either daily or Sunday chapel -- or both.

Today, in general, the religious program has become voluntary. This seems to me to be good because it puts the religious program people on their mettle and requires them to produce something which meets the needs of students. The protective tariffs have been removed.

What should a good religious program include. Seems to me: 1) services of worship for those who want or need them, 2) service programs -- Christian social service, 3) religious counseling, and 4) discussion groups.

5. College Assemblies and Convocations: These have excellent possibilities as means for building student morale. Through these assemblies or convocations which may meet once a week, the students get a chance to see themselves as a unit. These activities should be well-planned in advance, and should be conducted with an eye for showmanship. Otherwise, they will flop. Should be concerned with community interests in widening expanse. Suggested ways around which may be done the planning of these convocation:

   5.1 Student day: May be turned over to the student body.

   5.2 Special events or days: Example, the death of Stephen Vincent Binet.

   5.3 Special Speakers or Guests: Hutchins at Stanford, the wartime period at Hamilton

6. Lectures and Concerts: These are expressly extra-instructional services and should be administered by personnel people. The main purpose behind these services is to supplement the education of the students. Need of a faculty advisory committee.

7. Athletics: Inter-collegiate and Intra-mural:

   7.1 Inter-Collegiate Athletics: Theoretically, this is extra-instructional. Up to the beginning of this century inter-collegiate athletics was entirely under the control of the students. The spirit of competition and big business led to the hiring of paid coaches and even of paid players. What was student enterprise became an alumni enterprise and later a faculty-supervised enterprise. The inter-collegiate athletic program is extra-instructional, and by definition it should be a personnel problem. Theoretically, the Director of Athletics should report to the Dean of Students. In practice, this is not so. It won't be while athletics continue to have so many kinds of power.

   7.2 Intra-mural Athletics: The intra-mural athletic program is a part of the curricular program of the college since a student is required to have a specific number of units in physical education in order to graduate. Ideally, this should be taken care of by the curriculum people and should have the same status as chemistry or any other academic subject. As required work, physical education should really be a part of the so-called humanities. This has historical precedents. The Greeks made physical education a part of the school course. But the same tradition which has set the body apart from mind has been as work here.

8. Student-Affairs-Building and Affairs Therein: By this I mean the so-called student or university "unions." The word "union" as the English colleges used it referred to debating societies. Thus they had the Oxford Union, a debating society in which Gladstone got his start politically. The word became current in American campus vocabulary around the turn of the 20th century. However, as used in America even at that time the word referred to social meeting places rather than to debating societies.

The word was used in connection with the efforts of some university administrators like Noah Porter who wanted to have something to combat the influence of beer gardens and other dives which students frequented. The unions began humbly but did not take long to develop into full size establishments. Among the first big unions may be mentioned the Michigan Union which began in 1915. Incidentally, at that time, when co-eds went to the union they did not come in by the front door. The side door was their means of ingress. Wisconsin had a union by 1926. The union at the University of Minnesota was established largely through the efforts of Lotus D. Coffman.

8.1 Trolly-car Colleges Need Unions More Than Residential Colleges: This is so because of the highly urbanized character of the community where colleges operate. Students need a place where they can congregate and see friends.

8.2 But Residential Colleges also Need Unions:

8.21 To counteract influence of fraternities.

8.22 To provide a student center for those with large enrollments.

8.23 To provide places for students to meet faculty members.

9. General Supervision and Counselling of Student Organization: General expansion of student activities necessitates supervision and counselling.

9.1 General supervision and counselling of student organization rests on the office of the Dean of Students and his assistants, the Dean of Men and the Dean of Women.

9.2 Some colleges and universities place the burden of supervision of student organizations on students themselves. Cite Board of Student Affairs at Chicago.

10. General Supervision of Financial Affairs of Student Organizations:

10.1 Reasons why colleges and universities should supervise financial affairs of student organizations:

10.11 Affects the credit of the colleges and universities themselves.

10.12 Demanded by sound educational procedures. It is bad education for the student not to have standards of financial accountability.

10.13 To protect the student organizations themselves from being fleeced by salesmen and profiteers.

10.2 Techniques of supervising financial affairs of student organizations:

10.21 Setting up a definite organization for the specific purpose.

10.22 Making the University Auditor financial adviser of student organizations.

10.23 Periodic examination of "books" of student organization.

The practice of supervising financial affairs of student organizations may lead to centralized purchasing. Such a practice will have very distinct advantages.

11. Maintaining a Healthful Environment:: The acceptance by American educators during the 19th century of German educational models brought an end to the excessive paternalism of the Old American College. But the reaction went to extremes, and administrators like Eliot at Harvard sought to put students entirely on their own amidst all the potential evils of American cities during the Victorian Era. In sum, impersonalism reigned to the extent of ignoring even the environment in which a university existed. Thus we have gone through three stages since the end of the paternalism of the Old College:

11.1 Rampant Impersonalism: President McCosh protested against this in his debate with President Eliot in 1885. He pointed out that students couldn't be allowed complete freedom amidst the "Temples of Venus" and other evil places that existed in big cities. Even as late as the 1920's Professor Coolidge of Harvard pointed out that places of prostitution existed near Harvard and that is wasn't right to tolerate them.

11.2 The Legislative Period: University authorities could not fail to act against the undersirable gambling places, houses of prostituion, and liquor establishments in their neighborhoods. In various states and cities they sought governmental assistance to supress them. California a case in point: no liquor establishments allowed within a mile of an educational institution. When was this legislation passed -- does any one know?

11.3 The Research Period: Some investigations undertaken to understand the facts and the issues here. Cite President E. C. Elliott of Purdue 20 years ago appointing a graduate student here:

> "I said, 'I want you to spend your time as best you know how in a year's exploration of the jungles of the university.' All around every large institution there is an environment which, it sometimes seems to me, the word jungle is most aptly applied. The jungle may be a boarding house, a tenant section, a wealth-founded fraternity, a pool room, or it may be one of a dozen things that will suddenly raise themselves in the mind of the experienced."

I know of no other direct studies of "the jungles of a university," but clearly we need more such studies.

A whole lecture could be devoted to the question of maintaining a healthful environment for students and faculty members -- as well as for staff members. I petition student assistance in the devlopment of this topic. Particular attention should be given to controlling the environs of the institution.

12. Summary: This lecture includes a wide range of topics, but all seem to me to belong under the general subject of the lecture title. But a good deal of work must be done to round out the data and its evaluation. Unfortunately personnel people seldom write on these questions.

Topic Fifteen

Services Usually Performed by Student Groups

Introduction: This should be a very lengthy lecture. In fact, it should constitute a whole part of the course consisting of about ten lectures: one each for each kind of major student enterprise, each division of the extracurriculum which students manage. This would range from athletics to special interest clubs of chessmen, philaterlists, and yodlers. But we do not have the time for such an undertaking, and so in a fairly brief lecture we review the overall considerations and some of the more important peaks.

1. Student Life and College Spirit: The general characteristics of students and also of college spirit are controlled by students. Faculty members and administrators have little influence here. Students pass on from generation to generation the attitudes and activities that dominate, and thus both student life and college spirit are the property -- as it were -- of students. This requires at least the following discussion:

1.1 Student Life Defined: The term student life denotes the life of students outside of classrooms, laboratories, etc. It is the expression of student attitudes toward themselves, toward their society, toward life in general, and toward the world at large. It has a long history going back to the organized institutions of higher education in the Hellenistic world -- and perhaps also to the Hellenic world. It has always been a powerful -- perhaps the most powerful -- force in the life of individual students as well as of students en masse. It differs, of course, from age to age and from country to country; but its essential characteristics remain much the same. A dissertation might well be written on this topic: "The Characteristics of Student Life in Differenct Ages and Different Countries."

1.2 College Spirit Defined: The feeling or sentiment of group unity, of ethnocentrism among the students of the same institution. The term ethnocetrism coined by William Graham Sumner in his famous work Folkways, 1907. Basic concepts: in-group, out-group, identification, conformity, prestige. See my article with Willard Waller, "A Study of Student LIfe," JHE, March, 1935. pp. 132-42.

1.3 Student Mores: Mores are fixed customs with ethical significance that gives them the force of law. Correlative terms: custom, manners, folkways. As observed, William Graham Sumner gave currency to the conception. Every personnel worker should read if not own his book, Folkways.

Student mores get their power from their traditional character. Cite my uncompleted study of student traditions started 16 years ago and my abundant data awaiting the interest of students to use for doctoral dissertations. A tremendously important field which has hardly been scratched.

1.4 The Sense of Belonging: I mentioned this vital motivation in the last lecture, Item 8.1, and I stress it here because it seems to me to be the core motivation in student life and college spirit. All individuals, and particularly youths, have an urgent need to belong, to be part of something bigger than themselves, something that joins their energies to those of their fellows, something which gives them the thrill of participation with others, something which multiplies their energies and enhances their personalities.

One cannot understand student life and college spirit without reckoning directly and continuously with this need to belong, this sense of belonging, this urge for belongingness. Properly I ought to devote a full lecture to it, and I would were the time available. Since the course draws rapidly to a close, I can do no more than allude to its paramount significance.

2. Important Characteristics of Student Life: In addition to the need of belonging, it seems to me that these should be accented:

2.1 The Fact of Continuity: I have cited the studies I have begun but not finished on student traditions. A tradition is a continuing phenomenon: it comes from the past, dominates the present and has a mortgage on the future. Thus the power of the past has beautiful illustration here!!!

2.2 Change Requires Strong Personalities: The typical individual can do nothing but accept the pattern of behavior that he finds in a college. Changes can only be made by strong personalities. Cite the situation at Darmouth 1920-24. The moral here is that SPW people must educate the strong personalities in order to keep student life healthy and growing.

2.3 Distinction between Leaders and Headmen: The strong personalities do not always hold the positions of leadership. They may be the fellows behind the scenes who hold no offices but who really have the power. Cite my articles of 1928, 1929 on the distinction between leaders and headmen.

2.4 Class Distinctions Abound: The college campus is a paradise for the study of class structure, social stratification, etc. By and large the college campus is a very democratic place since men can make their way on ability rather than have to depend upon money or family status. But there are exceptions: cite Corlis Lamont's 1924 study at Harvard showing that all the high offices were then held by the graduates of about 10 preparatory schools. Also cite the social levels of fraternities, the social status of non-fraternity men and women, the refusal of the fraternities at Cornell and Michigan to admit coeds of their own institutions to their dances.

Clearly the college campus is a goldmine for sociologists, but they have almost completely neglected it. They have been studying the complex world at large but have passed up the laboratory right under their noses. This too bad, too bad. But personnel people should take on the task. Waller and I started to, but we got diverted. Now someone else should.

2.5 Short Generations: The college campus is a goldmine for sociologists, among other reasons, because generations are short -- only four years long. The "old men" are the seniors, and yet they have all the power of the "old men" of primitive tribes and elder statesmen of civilized life. Thus the sociologist can actually try social experiments and watch them mature in brief periods of one, two, or three college generations. The freshmen thinks that everything he finds on a campus "has always been so," and thus change can be manipulated fairly easily. The college campus is to the sociologist what the fruit fly [Drosophila] is to the geneticists; but, alas, the sociologists, have neglected their opportunities.

2.6 Students are Really Transients: Much discussion of student participation in academic government, but one of the limitations here is that students are really transients: they stay at most four years as undergraduates; and if they stay on as graduate students, they lose most of their interest in student life as they knew it. SPW people need to remember this both in terms of administering student life in general and in discussing student government in particular. As I shall point out later, I am for student government, but that's a very different thing from strongly urging the participation of students in the government of the institution in general.

3. Enterprises Managed by Students:

3.1 Student Government: Need of a full lecture on this topic. Here I can make only these points:

3.11 History: Began in the 1880's at Illinois and Amherst and later at Bryn Mawr. Has never flourished anywhere. Yet the Harvard Student Council has great prestige chiefly because of its reports on the educational problems of Harvard.

3.12 Reasons for Its Retarded State: These seem to me to be the potent reasons: 1) the shortness of the college generation which makes students largely transient; 2) the absence of strong student leaders in general: the abler students usually give their attention to their studies rather than to student life and student self-government; 3) faculty members and administrators are understandably loath to give power to student government until it has proved itself; and 4) student government flourishes when strong leaders present, but it wanes when strong leaders graduate to be replaced, often, by weaker men.

3.2 Fraternities: It can hardly be said that students themselves manage fraternities anymore. Alumni have always been powerful in their control, and in the past 20 years administration has had to move in to snug them up by means of a) financial controls, b) resident adult or adults, c) regulations concerning cost of houses, etc. as at Dartmouth. And yet students have a good deal to say about the fraternities to which they belong. The SPW worker needs to know much about fraternities including:

3.21 History: Began as literary societies which had no buildings. After the Civil War (around 1880) they went into the real estate business in protest against the impersonalism brought into the colleges by the importation of German educational ideas. This changed the literary character of fraternities: it made social societies of them primarily. Also it kept them strong because of alumni interest which continued in part because of their contributions and their ownership of the mortgages.

3.22 The Power of Fraternities: Tremendous hold on alumni because as undergraduates many of them found their real belongingness in the fraternity rather than in the college. Here they lived! Here they made friends for life. Here they had the bull sessions which shaped their values. Here they ate and talked and sang and played. Here they tasted the sweets of youth with congenial friends whose sisters they would marry and whose associates they became in their careers. Fraternities became the vigorously powerful organizations that they are because the college turned impersonal and handed them power on a plater.

Personnel people, of course, know of the power of fraternities, and they reckon with it. If they don't, they aren't bright.

3.23 The Future of Fraternities: Under much criticism, but they weather it. Yet their controllers are not in general critical of them as vital social institutions in which the mechanics of social action operate and brilliantly illustrate themselves. In general they seek only to maintain the status quo, and this is bad.

Because of the evils of fraternities -- and they are many -- they are under severe attack and have been for 30 years. Even at Amherst, one of the great strongholds of fraternities, they are currently under probation and may be dropped in five years. My hunch is that they won't be, that they will survive as at Dartmouth where 15 years ago the administration tried to squeeze them out.

Thus fraternities will continue, but they will come in for more and more criticism which will eventually lead to hobbling them or -- and this is to be hoped for in preference -- fraternity leaders see their opportunity to study the fraternity as a potent social laboratory which needs thorough investigation and understanding. Alas, most fraternity powers are perpetual sophomores and don't see their opportunity; and even if they did, they'd not grasp it. But we must hope for a better crop of fraternity officrs among the alumni. Then the fraternity can be made to evolve into the fine institution it should be.

3.3 Student Publications: Again a lecture needed on this topic alone.

3.31 History: Older than athletics and fraternities. Began as literary monthly often under the leadership of members of the fraternities in their literary period. Newspapers came in late in the 19th century along with yearbooks, humorous magazines, etc. As far as I know, no one has ever written up the history of student publications, and the job badly needs doing.

3.32 Most Important Recent Developments:

3.321 Departments of Journalism Have Taken Over: This a pointed example of part of the extracurriculum becoming part of the curriculum. This true at most institutions which have schools or departments of journalism. And yet the best student newspapers (as far as editorial policy is concerned but not, perhaps, in news reporting) are still managed by students. The Harvard Crimson, the Yale News, the Princetonian, and The Dartmouth examples of student-owned and student-managed daily newspapers. All have powerful status in their institutions -- more, I think, than The Cornell Sun, the Michigan Daily, and other such papers controlled largely by faculty journalism people.

3.322 Fees Support Them: Many student papers supported by fees collected by the institution and allotted to the publications. This developed because of the inability of the publications to stay solvent without them -- or because of poor student journalism. The support of student publications by fees has led directly to administrative control of them.

3.323 Profits of Student Editors and Managers Reduced: This a direct result of fee collection by the institution. Has its points, but it also keeps students in need of large profits out of publications. And these students in the past have been strong contributors to the development of some of the publications. Yet not enough of these strong men to keep all papers in the profit margin.

3.324 Future of Student Publications: I don't see any change on the horizon except it be that they will move to the political left when and if we cease having an economy of abundance. If that happens, they will become serious and continuous headaches to administrators -- and the SPW people will be blamed.

3.4 Dramatics: Now largely taken over by Departments of Speech and Drama. Perhaps better dramatics result, but student initiative and response sacrificed.

3.5 Musical Organizations: Ditto for Departments of Music.

3.6 Debating: In the 1880s and 1890s this the most important of student enterprises. But athletics have so completely eclipsed debating that it has hardly any status at all on most campuses.

3.7 Dances and Proms: Run largely by fraternities and college classes. I know little about this area.

3.8 Social Interest Clubs: Many from astronomy to zoology, from chess to radio haming, but I know little about them. Information vital here.

Student Personnel Services in American Higher Education

Part Five

Other Relationships and Services

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Topic Sixteen

The Faculty

Introduction: Historically and currently SPW people and faculty members have been and are separate groups of workers. Often their memberships overlapped, but since the Middle Ages proctors, patrons, stewards, and other personnel people have not been members of the instructional staff. The same situation holds true today, and in this lecture we discuss three general topics: 1) services performed by the SPW people for the teaching staff, 2) the relationships of the instructional and SPW enterprises, and 3) services performed by the faculty for SP Workers: referrals, extracurricular support, etc.

1. Services for the Teaching Staff: SPW people are specialists in student relationships. As such they can and must do a good many things for the teaching staff which it cannot do itself. The lines are not sharply drawn here, but the services discussed below in general fall under the aegis of SPW rather than under instruction:

1.1 Helping Maintain a High Level of Student Morale: Observe the word "helping." Everyone in a college or university participates in creating and helping maintain the morale of the group, and yet SPW has a substantial contribution to make.

1.11 Morale Defined: An attitude of unity, hope, and confidence growing in part from ethnocentrism and in part from personal achievement of the members of the group.

1.12 The Two Chief Elements of College Morale:

1.121 College Life: In American higher education the life of the college for a long while has been a major determinant of student and also of faculty morale. Many students come to college as much for the student life as for college courses, and thus the quality of student life has much to do with their morale. Similarly, faculty members work in an atmosphere charged with morale sentiments of students. Consider:

1.1211 Angell's discussion in *The Campus*, pp. 205-220 wherein he gives evidence to show that morale among students does not primarily depend upon the intellectual purposes of the institution but rather chiefly upon student life.

1.1212 Canby's description of the vital importance of college life to Yale students as he knew them in the 1890's and up to 1916.

1.1213 The dejection that engulfs even a large university when its football team loses.

1.1214 Virginia Haller's master's thesis on the attitudes of Stanford students concerning what many consider to be inadequate social facilities.

1.122 Quality of Teaching: Clearly important in morale.

1.13 Specific Services: Personnel people can help student morale by:

1.131 Giving High Quality Personnel Services to Individual Students: We have discussed these services in a series of lectures, and thus one generalization alone need be made: that personnel people must have high standards of performance in working with individual students. Sloppy performance makes for poor morale. For example, a poor dean of students or a poor counselor who sees many students can bog down student morale mightily. Indeed, any poor performance bogs down student morale. One of the implications of this observation is that personnel people should be better trained than they generally are. Another is that personnel people as a group (nationally) should set up standards of ethical and professional performance.

1.132 Maintaining a High Quality Student Life: This involves all the things discussed in the lectures on students and groups of students. In particular it means that personnel people should learn the principles governing student life -- and in particular the principles governing the mores: ethnocentrism, identification, pervasive traditions, and the like. As yet practically nothing is done on this score in training personnel people, but much must be done if personnel people are to be adequate to their jobs. The first step, of course, is research!!! I hope this class will produce some research people in this area.

Of great importance here is Elton Mayo's book Social Problems of An Industrial Civilization, 1945.

1.2 Providing Professional Counseling Services: We have discussed the question of faculty counseling, and in summary we must make this point -- that personnel people in the role of counselors have been appointed because faculty people have not been willing to assume the burden of counseling and, also, because many of them are inadequate to the job of good counseling. If faculty members could handle the counseling load in addition to their teaching and research, have no doubt about it, personnel people would never have been appointed to undertake the counseling responsibility. Hence it follows that personnel people serve faculty members by performing a function which they would have to undertake (albeit in many cases poorly) if counselors were not available.

1.3 Keeping Records and Providing Data From Records: Records are, of course, inevitable. The credit system and the accreditation system have made records even more necessary than before their initiation. Distinguish between two kinds of records:

1.31 Official Academic Records: Traditionally assigned to the keeping of the Registrar or the Recorder. Incidentally, research needed on the evolution of this office. To whom should this officer report? The present trend is for reporting to the chief personnel officer, the Dean of Students. This true at Chicago, Ohio State, etc.

1.32 Counseling and Activities Records: Seldom given to the Registrar although some would like to keep them. Kept by individual personnel people usually, but this inefficient. The Minnesota Central Reference Desk a proposed solution.

1.33 Confidential Counseling Records: These must be retained by the individual counselor and destroyed when the student leaves the institution.

1.34 Alumni Records: Usually handled by the alumni organization. The question of whether all student records should be turned over to the alumni office depends upon the size of the institution. Cite the different situations at Ohio State and Hamilton. At the first, only a summary card should be turned over; but at the second, the whole file is -- and should be -- turned over.

1.35 Making Records Available to Faculty: A very involved question.

1.4 Keeping Records of Student Groups: Records of student groups should also be kept, and in athletics they are because of the demand for them made by the editors of student yearbooks, newspapers, alumni, etc. Recordkeeping for all student groups an onerous and expensive business, but a standard form for minute keeping and a standard form for filing helps immensely.

1.5 Administering Faculty and Administrative Policies: Administering faculty and administrative policies concerning student life and academic standards falls largely to the lot of personnel people. Boards of trustees and faculties legislate, and personnel people execute. Concerning this important segment of personnel work the following need stress:

1.51 Liberal Interpretation of the Rules Desirable: Personnel people must strive for such confidence from the board and the faculty that they will be given great freedom in executing policies. The strict and wooden execution of policies (rules and regulations) makes for injustice and therefore for bad morale. Personnel people aren't worth their salt if they can't get their legislative associates to give them relatively free hands in executing their policies.

1.52 Good Will From Students: Liberality of interpretation does not mean that students are not to be held to high standards. Since this must be true, some students will be forced to leave the institution either for academic failure or for moral deficiency. The personnel worker must strive here to have all departing students leave with good will. This not always possible, but the attempt should be made. Recall the story of Dean Gauss and the departing Princeton student who would spit on his grave.

1.53 Handling Problems of Academic Discipline: Discussed in part in Item 1.51 above, but the question of organizing the administration of academic discipline must be discussed too. Should the whole job be done by a personnel officer? The fact is that the dean of instruction usually handles such matters; and in my judgment he should have much freedom of action, but he should be supported by a faculty committee over which he should have large prestige influence. And he should be a warm-hearted and generous person rather than a martinet.

1.54 Handling Problems of Social Discipline: Usually handled by the Dean of Students, and he should be supported by a faculty committee. The committee should be made up of generous-minded men and women, and the dean should also be a large-hearted person. A standard to maintain: EVERY PROBLEM OF SOCIAL DISCIPLINE CONSTITUTES AN OPPORTUNITY FOR SOCIAL COUNSELING!!! College delinquents must not be thrown upon society! The college should help erring students to resolve their problems.

2. The Relationship of SPW to Instruction: A wing of the SPW movement holds the same opinion as some "progressive educators" in holding that every instructor (or whatever rank) should be a personnel worker. This group maintains that SPW should be made up of a very few experts such as psychotherapeutic counselors, student residence managers, etc., but that most personnel work should be done by faculty members. The point of view has no status over the country generally, but it seems to be the doctrine of such colleges as Bennington, Sarah Lawrence, and Stephens. Because these advocates talk and write a lot, we must look into the situation.

2.1 The Point of View: It seems to be this: that every individual who teaches college students should be trained in SPW philosophy and practise.

2.2 The Point of View in Operation: At the colleges named and a few others, every person employed to teach is also judged on his ability and interest in SPW. Moreover, every teacher is judged not only on the quality of his scholarship and teaching but on the quality of his SPW.

2.3 Critique of the Point of View:

2.31 The point of view stems from the thesis that colleges and universities exist primarily for students. But, as pointed out before, this is not true in fact currently, and it has never been true. Colleges and universities exist for six groups of personnel: students, faculty, administrative staff, alumni, trustees, and maintenance staffs. In particular, the faculty owe allegiance not only to the interests of students but also to their subject matter and to the ongoing of the enterprise of learning. For every faculty member to be a SP Worker means that every faculty member must neglect his responsibilities to learning per se.

2.32 Of course, it's impossible for every faculty member to be skilled in dealing with students as well as in his subject matter and in developing his subject matter. The world is so complex that we have to have a division of labor.

2.33 Dean Herbert E. Hawkes, great dean of Columbia College, once wrote that the ideal is having all faculty members interested in the whole student, and I'd accept this provided one stresses the word interested and stops there. Faculty members should of course, recognize that they are dealing with whole people and not just with minds, but being interested in whole students does not mean that one must be skilled in dealing with all parts of the whole. We don't expect SP workers to be physicians and lawyers, and yet medical and legal considerations are involved in dealing with whole people. In short, no-one can deal with every part of the whole that is another individual: that takes a type of universal genius no longer possible in this complex world.

2.34 I'm chiefly critical of the thesis because instruction would suffer -- and in my judgment does suffer at the few colleges which hold it. Personally, I'd employ every outstanding teacher that I could find -- since there are so few at best -- and I wouldn't care whether or not he had an expertness or any interest in SPW.

2.35 Yet I'd hope that I could persuade every teacher that 1) he should be aware of the wholeness of the students he teaches, 2) that he'd be well enough trained to spot students in need of expert SPW assistance, and 3) that he'd be so well informed of the SPW facilities of the institution that he could and would refer students to the SP worker who could help him with his problem beyond the ken of the instructor.

In sum, the notion that every instructor should be a SP worker seems to me to be indefensible and, indeed, highly dangerous. And it's dangerous because it prevents progress in the direction of getting the cooperation of the faculty members for a sensiole program of sensitive referring of students to experts. It is also dangerous because it would reduce the instructional activities of an institution to a low level of superficiality.

3. Summary: Clearly I've hardly touched the problem of SPW services for and relationships with members of instructional staff. However, perhaps this lecture has helped to stimulate some awareness of the huge issues in this important sector of SPW.

Topic Seventeen

Parents

Introduction: The parents of students naturally continue to be interested in their sons and daughters, and thus parents form a potent public opinion group which a college or university cannot wisely ignore. Moreover, colleges have a legally imposed custodial responsibility for their students. They act in legal loco parentis for all minor students in their charge. They ignore this legal responsibility at great risk.

> (Incidentally, someone ought to do a book or a doctoral dissertation on the law of the in loco parentis status of colleges and universities. Many faculty and students object to the in loco parentis concept. They assert that students are adults and don't want or need parental surveillance and that therefore the parental umbilical cord should be cut.)

I have insufficient knowledge of these legal questions, and so in this lecture I shall discuss only the activities of SPW involving parents.

1. Correspondence With Parents: Parents initiate considerable correspondence with colleges and universities; and, alas, some institutions ignore it or handle it very badly. This is, of course, stupid in the extreme. Either by direct fees or by taxpaying parents are the controllers of the destiny of an institution -- or one of the powerful groups of controllers, and they cannot be ignored, handled shabbily, or handled with high-handed disdain.

   But the correspondence is often initiated by the institution to report to parents about both good and bad things that happen to their sons and daughters. The word "correspondence" is a general term here covering letters, phone calls, and even visits.

   I propose that parents should be informed of every major event affecting the lives of their sons and daughters individually. This might be done by letter, by telegram, by telephone, or by a personal visit. Such intelligence is of two general sorts:

   1. Positive: High grades, honors, etc.
   2. Negative: Low grades, flunking out, social discipline, etc.

   Institutions usually get in touch with parents about the negative things, but most of them neglect the positive things. I propose that the money spent to keep them informed about the positive things is among the best money spent by an institution: it pays huge dividends in good will -- and often in money.

   But aside from the advantages that accrue to the institution, it has both a moral and a legal responsibility here. It should recognize and reckon with both.

2. A News Service For Parents: Parents constitute a very important "public" of a college or university, and it should be cultivated by means of a special news service for parents.

   Some institutions disregard this area, but others work it among them:

   2.1 The University of Minnesota with its publication (monthly, I think) entitled Minnesota Chats.

   2.2 The Hamilton Review of Hamilton College.

   2.3 Antioch Notes of Antioch College: This not a news medium about student life or about the life of the institution but, rather, a discussion of questions bearing upon education. Yet, it is sent to the parents of all Antioch students and serves, in its fashion, to keep them informed about Antioch.

   2.4 At Denison written by the President of Denison University and distributed from his office. Much like Antioch Notes, but students are discussed more frequently and more personally.

   Someone might well explore the publications of this sort and describe and discuss them at length. This is one of the many places that we need research in SPW. Another possible dissertation!

3. Mothers' Clubs: Developed and maintained by some deans of women for the mothers of students, particularly the mothers of women students. We have one here at Stanford, and scores of them exist over the country. Research needed here: How many are there? How do they operate? What do they accomplish? What are the best techniques for operating them that have been discovered? And many other pertinent questions.

4. Dads' Clubs: Also a few of these, but they too need researching so that SPW administrators can know about them and whether or not they ought to develop them on their campuses. Some of the enterprises here that I know of:

   4.1 Dad's Day at Some State Universities: At the Homecoming Game each Fall, the Dad's (what a horrible name!) of the players sit together and between halfs take bows. Is this desirable???

   4.2 The Dartmouth Fathers' Club: The fathers of Dartmouth students can join Dartmouth Fathers' Clubs in various parts of the United States. Many of these fathers are not college men, and they often become stronger Dartmouth advocates than some alumni. Others are alumni of other institutions but transfer their loyalty to the college of their sons. I've met some of these men, and they're as strong Dartmouth boosters as I know. They have helped substantially to spread the reputation of Dartmouth over the country. And what institution has developed a national public more effectively (on non-educational grounds) than Dartmouth?

   Incidentally, this enterprise is managed by the Alumni staff and not by the SPW staff.

5. Freshman Week Session For Parents: This done at the University of Pittsburgh, at Ohio State, and at a number of other institutions. Here, too, research needed!!!! How does the program work? Is it worth the effort put into it? Etc.

6. Analysis of Types of Relations With Parents: Two kinds, I'd say:

   6.1 Individual: That is, relations with the parents (one or both) of individual students. These are personal and include correspondence and personal visits. A summary needs to be made of the many varieties of these individual relations.

   6.2 Group: Those described in Items 2 to 5 above. But there probably are several more which I've missed. Need of research here, too.

7. Summary: A most important sector of SPW that has been sporadically developed and that has never been studied. It holds such power for the development of colleges and universities that it deserves immediate and protracted and incisive attention.

Topic Eighteen

Relationships With Other Administrative Divisions of the Institution

I haven't as yet worked up this topic as thoroughly as I should like, and so I merely indicate the importance of the topic and leave its development until some later offering of this course.

Enough for the time being to observe:

1. SPW constitutes one of the four or five major administrative divisions of colleges and universities, the others being:
    1.1 Instructional division) Usually combined.
    1.2 Research division)
    1.3 Business-affairs division
    1.4 Public relations division: this division sometimes includes alumni relations.
    1.5 Legal division: several institutions have this, and recently President Day of Cornell stressed its high importance.
    1.6 Money-raising and money management division: sometimes one division, sometimes two. And sometimes a part of business affairs, but sometimes not.
2. I shall be discussing these divisions in my lecture on the administration of SPW.
3. But the topic also belongs in this division of the course since SPW serves these other units and, in turn, they serve SPW. I need to spend some time analyzing and describing these services. As yet I've not been able to, but I shall before long -- I hope.
4. For the time being I do no more, perforce, than cite the existence of these other divisions and stress the importance of the services the various divisions perform for one another.

Topic Nineteen

Maintenance Services of the SPW Division

Introduction: The SPW division contributes crucial services toward maintaining colleges and universities. By "maintaining" I mean keeping them supplied with students and keeping students at work and in order. By "order" here, of course, I don't mean discipline. Rather, I mean working effectively and in tune with the governmental policies of colleges and universities.

Maintenance services seem to me to be of two main sorts: 1) getting new students and 2) administering institutional policy. We shall discuss each of these topics in this lecture:

1. Getting New Students: The inevitability of the division of labor in higher educational management has made it necessary to allocate this responsibility to specialists. And these specialists are part of the SPW staff in the persons of admission officers. In Lecture Eight I have discussed the topic of admissions broadly, and so here I discuss it only from the point of view of getting students, that is, from the point of view of institutional maintenance.

   1.1 History: Specialized only within the past 50 years. Before that time faculty members and the President went out looking for students. Now admissions officers do the job during periods of "buyers' markets." During the current period of "sellers' market" (fast coming to an end, however) admissions officers do not have to recruit: they just wait for the abundant customers. The point I'd stress here is that the specialization of recruitment is relatively new in higher educational history.

   1.2 The Intense Competition During Periods of Buyers' Markets: The period of the depression a case in point. Then even Princeton had recruiters in the field.

   1.3 Recruiters Active At All Periods For Some Institutions: Institutions on the make have recruiters in the field continuously and even in good periods. Stephens College a case in point. The last time I heard about the Stephens situation, it had 16 field agents looking for students. But even the well-established institutions now generally have one or two men or women or both in the field fairly continuously. Cite Hamilton, Harvard, Stanford.

   1.4 Veterans: Much written about the performance of veterans and also about their effects upon colleges and universities, but I've seen nothing in print about the recruiting problems here -- at least nothing comprehensive. Need of study of the devices used by colleges and universities to 1) attract veterans and 2) handle them in terms of permanent institutional policy.

   1.5 The Use of Financial Aids in Recruitment: Scholarships and part-time employment long used as recruitment weapons especially to attract athletes. The situation here is so full of scandal that the data is hard to discover. It should be run down and analyzed not only for athletes but for all students. Important here:

1.51 Harvard's National Scholarship Program: We need a reference book -- perhaps in the form of a yearbook -- in which the facts of this and other important national scholarship programs are described in detail.

1.52 State Scholarships: New York has a state scholarship program, and so probably have other states; but I know too little about any of them -- and even though I worked in New York state for six years. Clearly we need a reference work making these data easily available.

1.53 Federal Scholarships: Many exist, but I don't know the facts about them, say, for clinical psychologists. Again, the need of a reference work is apparent. It should also include a summary of the Truman Commission recommendations about federal aid to students.

1.6 The Importance of Usafi: The United States Armed Forces Institute located at Madison, Wisconsin has done vitally important work bearing upon the recruitment of students, to wit, preparing many students for higher educational admissions who have not come up through the usual process of formal education. Many of these students are going on to higher education and are doing good work. Recruiting officers need to know about this important enterprise.

Once more, the need of a reference work -- revised perhaps annually -- seems clear.

General Statement: The business (and it is a business!) of getting new students is of very great importance -- and obviously. Yet it remains in a disordered state. It needs organization for the purpose of arriving at useful generalizations which would lead to 1) a better understanding of the practise employed, 2) the issues involved, and 3) the generalizations or principles involved.

2. Administering Institutional Policy: In my Government of Higher Education course I make much of the thesis that colleges and universities are governments. They actually govern and, indeed, the law recognizes them as what I call fractional governments. A fractional government is a social institution with powers to make its own laws (usually called rules and regulations) affecting the behavior of members of the institution.

No group of people can work together without establishing procedures encased in so-called rules and regulations. Moreover, no institution can operate which does not have direct relationships with the laws of the political governments above it: municipal, county, state, and federal. Thus we have two problems here: 1) institutional policy resting on civil law and 2) institutional policy resting on self-made policy. We shall discuss each of these two varieties of law:

2.1 Civil Government Law: A very great deal of law affecting SPW!!! The only person who has done any substantial work here seems to be

M.M. Chambers. See his books entitled The College and the Courts. These volumes include a good deal more than SPW problems, and thus we badly need abstractions from his works of those legal statutes and decisions affecting SPW. We badly need a book on SP law!!!

2.2 Institutional Law -- Or Rules and Regulations: Every society, every institution, requires ORDER; and rules and regulations are codified order -- or effects to get and keep order.

In my Government of Higher Education course I discuss at length the dangers of too much and too stilted order, and I can't go into that topic here. Enough to say, however, that SPW people are the administrators of many of the rules and regulations of their institutions. This must be so, but it involves at least these elements:

2.21 Knowing the Rules and Regulations: Obvious although difficult when they are numerous.

2.22 Knowing the History of Academic Rules and Regulations: We have gone through several periods or stages here, and SPW people need to know of these periods in order to be able to manage the present and plan for the future.

2.23 Working Continuously For Improvements: Many academic rules and regulations are stupid or worse. But they will not be changed by mere complaining. They must be handled intelligently in the spirit of critical continuism.

General Statement: Clearly the governmental ingredients of SPW are of great importance, and yet SP people in general know little about them or even about their existence. This will not change until extensive research is done and until research is written up ably for the enlightenment of SP people. The enterprise should be initiated soon.

3. Summary: SPW people are called upon to help maintain the institutions in which they work, and they are assigned two large areas of responsibility: 1) getting new students and 2) administering many of the institutions' rules and regulations. But SP people in general do little thinking about these important enterprises. This will continue to be so until research and distribution of research data are undertaken.

Student Personnel Services in American Higher Education

Part Six

Administration and Research

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Topic Twenty

Student Personnel Administration

Introduction: In order to discuss SP administration, we must first discuss academic administration in general; and in order to discuss academic administration, we must first discuss academic government; and in order to discuss academic government, we must first discuss the nature of government itself. I devote two full courses to those considerations (the Government of Higher Education and the Administration of Higher Education), and here I summarize some of the definitions there developed and employed. We begin this lecture with these definitions and then proceed to discuss SP Administration.

1. Definitions:

1.1 Government Defined: By the term government we have come generally to mean political authority, but this is not a proper definition. A government is a system "of social controls whereby the relations of individuals are adjusted and common interests and desires secured." Walter J. Shepard, ESS, 7:8.4.

Professor Shepard goes on to point out that: "Such systems are of two general kinds"-- 1) "those which operate spontaneously and automatically" and 2) "those which have acquired a definite institutional organization and operate by means of legal mandates enforced by definite penalties."

Developing the conception further, Professor Shepard remarks about the first of these two kinds of government: There is a government of the church, of the trade union, of the industrial corporation, of the university." He then contrasts the two kinds of government by pointing out that "The state is a community in which membership is not voluntary but imposed upon all indivudals within a given territory." Hence, "the state is the only" kind of government "from which an individual may not withdraw without leaving the territory occupied by the community."

Professor Shepard's discussion and others like it lead me to the following definitions:

1.11 Plenary Government: All enterprises for keeping order. It includes Professor Shepard's two kinds of government but also customary law, manners, mores, etc. In short, it includes all varieties "of social controls whereby the relations of individuals are adjusted and common interests and desires secured." This definition differs from Professor Shepard's in this particular: it includes all varieties of social controls that have the power to enforce a kind of behavior upon individuals -- it includes the controls over table manners, for example, as well as controls over life and property.

1.12 Fractional Governments: Plenary government (my term) is not an organized entity. Rather it consists in all efforts of men to maintain order. This insistent necessity of man to maintain order has led to the development of two major kinds of fractional governments: 1) pre-emptory or territorial and 2) voluntary:

1.121 Pre-Emptory: This is territorial government, and we call it the state. But the essential fact about it is that it covers a given geographical territory controlling everyone in that territory with or without their consent. In brief, it's involuntary or pre-emptory. To repeat Professor Shepard's statement: "The state is a community in which membership is not voluntary but imposed upon all individuals within a given territory." And the state is the only pre-emptory government: ". . . the state is the only one [government] from which an individual may not withdraw without leaving the territory occupied by the community."

1.122 Voluntary: Shepard had voluntary governments in mind when he wrote that: "There is a government of the church, of the trade union, of the industrial corporation, of the university." But membership in any of these governments is voluntary. An individual may withdraw.

I do not stop to discuss the implications of the two distinctions that I have made: 1) between plenary and fractional governments and 2) between pre-emptory and voluntary governments. Enough to observe that we are today going through a period in which a number of fantastically important questions are being decided in this realm. The most important of these questions seem to me to be these: 1) whether or not the state or territorial government shall also become the plenary government controlling and therefore eliminating all voluntary governments; 2) whether or not any voluntary government (as for example, any church) shall be able to dominate and therefore in effect control the state or territorial government; and 3) whether or not any other power group (such as the military, business and industry, etc.) shall control the state or territorial government.

These, as everyone knows, are the most important questions of this age; and they are being decided now. My own fervent belief is that the state or territory government is paramount and must be paramount but that it is not all powerful and must not be permitted to become all powerful. In short, a healthy society needs not only a strong territory government but also strong voluntary governments. And among these it needs strong academic government.

1.2 Academic Government Defined: A fractional, voluntary government established with the approval of the territorial government by means of a charter and operating within the general laws of the territorial government. Four types of academic government may be distinguished:

1.21 Territorial (Civic): A college or university government established by a territorial government, that is, by a nation, a province of the nation (called state in this country), or a division of a province (a county or a municipality). We have examples of all four varieties of territorial colleges and universities in the United States:

1.211 National Territorial: West Point, Annapolis, etc.

1.212 Provincial Territorial: State universities and colleges.

1.213 County Territorial: Junior colleges in California, etc.

1.214 Municipal Territorial: Municipal universities and colleges like the University of Cincinnati, C.C.N.Y., etc.

1.22 Alodial: Colleges and universities chartered by the territorial government but independent of it in its government other than that it operates within the laws of the territory. Also independent of any other fractional government such as the church. Examples: Johns Hopkins, Stanford, Harvard, Yale, etc. Incidentally, the term alodial is a legal term which I have brought over into academic government. I've not yet had legal advice as to whether or not it can properly be employed here. For the time being, however, it serves to distinguish institutions like Harvard and Stanford from the University of California on the one hand and Santa Clara University on the other.

1.23 Sectarian (Fauterial): I use this term in its broad meaning, to wit, self-interest. Thus we have sects in the labor movement as well as in religion, in politics as well as in medicine. By a sectarian college or university I therefore mean any educational institution on the upper level controlled by a special-interest group. Examples:

1.231 Religious Sectarian: Santa Clara University, Catholic University of America, Fordham University, Notre Dame University, Boston University, Drew University, etc.

1.232 Labor Sectarian: No great institutions as yet, but the CIO controls some training schools on the upper level, and so also does the AFL.

1.233 Industrial Sectarian: Every advanced school run by a business corporation is a sectarian institution; it serves the interests of the corporation supporting it. For example, General Motors Institute of Flint, Michigan.

1.234 Proprietary: We still have a few proprietary institutions in American higher education: Middlesex Medical College in Boston and hundreds of schools for stenographers, beauticians, etc., which require high school

> graduation for admission. These institutions are corporations chartered by a territorial government to operate an educational institution for the pecuniary profit of the managers.

I cannot go into details about these three types of academic governments. I do that in my course on the Government of Higher Education. Enough here to identify the boundaries within which we must discuss the administration of SP.

1.3 Administration Defined: Since Montesquieis's day we have recognized three branches of government: legislative, judicial, and executive or administrative. In his book, Administrative Law, 1905, p. 1, President Frank Goodnow of Johns Hopkins (president there 1914-29) defined administration as follows:

> "Whenever we see the government in action as opposed to deliberation, or the rendering of a judicial decision, there we say is administration."

From this and similar discussions it follows that administration is the carrying out of legislative and judicial conclusions concerning the government of the institution or society under discussion.

1.4 Academic Administration: Upon the basis of the above discussion we can define academic administration as the carrying out of the policies established by the governing boards of colleges and universities.

It is relevant here to point out that academic government differs from political or territorial government in that 1) it has no distinctive judicial division and 2) usually the administrative branch (as represented by the president) is a member of the chief legislative branch, that is, the Board of Trustees. Thus the president of a college or university, if he serves on the Board of Trustees and especially if he is the chairman of the Board of Trustees, operates in all three divisions of government: legislative, judicial, and administrative. This makes it difficult to distinguish academic administration from academic government. Yet we must distinguish them in this discussion.

1.5 SP Administration: A division of academic administration. We shall devote the remainder of the lecture to this topic. All that we have been discussing to this point has been preparatory to the discussion of SP administration. Yet the effort has been necessary in order to place it in its larger setting.

2. The History of SPW Administration: Three stages it seems to me:

2.1 Unorganized Stage: This existed for centuries: from the medieval universities until about 1920. Personnel work, as I've pointed out frequently, has always been a part of colleges and universities since the medieval period -- and perhaps before. But it had vague administrative status until about 1920.

2.2 The Centralized Bureau Period -- 1920-1930: A very brief period immediately following the establishment of scientific personnel work after the First World War. Administrators set up separate personnel bureaus to serve an entire institution. Northwestern University under L.B. Hopkins a case in point. This centralized bureau cut across existing administrative lines and proved vastly unpopular and therefore unworkable. Dean Boucher of the University of Chicago called it "a fifth wheel." And it was. It had to give way to a more efficient, more organic method.

2.3 The Present Functional Administrative Period: During the 1930s it became apparent to some of us in personnel work and to some in general administration that SPW needed to blend into the overall administrative pattern of functional administration which had begun to develop after M.L. Cooke in 1910 wrote his definitive volume Industrial and Academic Efficiency. Today SPW is generally considered to be part of, or more properly a division of academic functional administration. It is therefore important that we give some attention to the conception and the development of functional administration.

3. Functional Administration:

3.1 Its Development: When institutions of higher education in the United States were small, the president handled all administrative matters. He had in time a few assistants such as a bursar, a registrar, etc.; but at many small colleges he didn't even have these. After the Civil War this one-man administrative plan proved inadequate, and the following developments occurred:

3.11 Appointment of Full-Time Business Managers: A long history here, but in sum this may be said: early beginnings of specialized business management even in the 18th Century, but the office of business manager not really established in American colleges and universities until about 1910.

3.12 Appointment of Full-Time Academic Deans: Still in process, and many institutions still do not have one. The big event in this area the reorganization of Harvard in 1890 under which the Dean of the Faculty of Arts and Sciences took responsibility for all instruction and research in all non-professional fields -- and from the freshman year through graduate work.

An antecedent for this in the deanship of professional schools, but deans of professional schools had really been minor presidents: they had complete responsibility for the management of their units. Eliot changed all this at Harvard beginning in 1870 when he brought the professional schools under the direct control of the Harvard presidency.

3.13 Appointment of Student Personnel Deans: This happened in two steps:

3.131 The Joint Deanship at Harvard -- 1870-1890: Eliot took office in 1869, and on January 1, 1870 Professor E.W. Gurney of the History Department became Dean of Harvard

College in which office he combined concern for both instruction and student personnel services. Eliot, however, gave a good deal of attention to instructional matters, and he conceived of Gurney primarily as the disciplinary officer. Eliot had big game to hunt, and he did not want to be bothered with the problem of student discipline, the problem that had dogged all his predecessors at Harvard as well as the presidents of all the colleges. Yet on paper Gurney was Dean of Harvard College and had at least a nominal responsibility for both instruction and SPW. See my address of 1937 in the bibliography: "The Disappearing Dean of Men."

3.132 The Separate Student Personnel Deanship: Established by Eliot in the reorganization of Harvard in 1890. In brief, Eliot set up two deanships where one had been before: 1) the deanship of the Faculty of Arts and Science responsible for all instructional and research matters from the freshman year to the Ph.D., and 2) the Deanship of Harvard College, an office which, despite its vague label, was really a deanship of students. In fact, it was the first deanship of students established in the United States.

Especially in the past 15 years, scores of deanships of students have been established. Some individuals, however, hold other titles although they perform the same functions. Thus the head of SPW administration at Ohio State University is a vice president. But titles are confusing here. Think of functions, not titles.

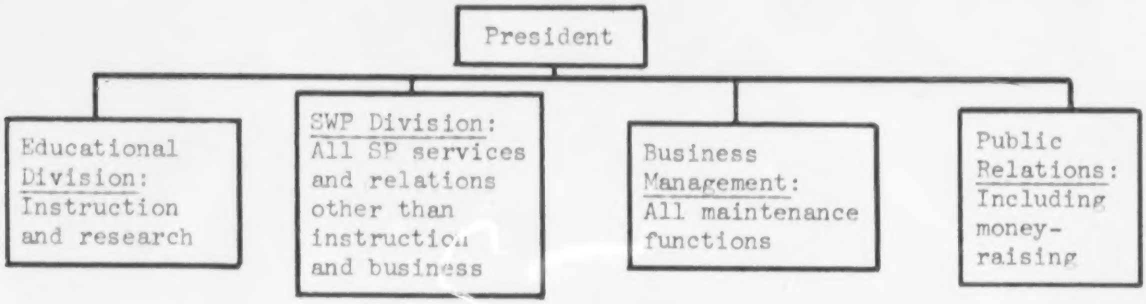
3.14 Appointment of Full-Time Public Relations Officers: It has become apparent to some general administrators that a fourth functional area must be set apart and developed, to wit, public relations. Thus, Texas, Stanford, and a few other institutions have public relations vice presidents. And Cornell has a provost with public relations functions especially those relating to money-raising.

The public relations division of functional administration is the newest to be recognized and developed, thus it is as yet not well rationalized. It is coming, however, to be seen as a most important division of academic administration and therefore of functional administration. Sometimes publications and alumni are included in this section.

3.15 Divisions: In an address at the 1948 meeting of the National Association of State Universities, President Edmund E. Day of Cornell University proposed that other functional divisions be recognized including 1) a legal division, 2) a money management division separate from business management and also from money-raising. Day did not mention functional administration as such. These divisions exist in many large universities, but they are usually branches of the four major functional divisions described above.

In general, it may be said that over the country today four major functional administrative divisions have developed -- and are continuing to develop.

The heads of them usually have equal rank, and they report directly to the president or to the president through an executive or administrative vice president. I shan't stop here to explore the various plans. Enough to present the following chart as illustrative of the most common plan of functional administration in use -- and not only at large universities but also at some small colleges:


President
Educational Division: Instruction and research
SWP Division: All SP services and relations other than instruction and business
Business Management: All maintenance functions
Public Relations: Including money-raising

I must emphasize the fact that I do not know of a single college and university in the country that operates exactly on the pattern of this chart. It merely represents the trend, the evolving pattern. The institution which comes closest seems to be Ohio State which now has three vice presidents, one each for the educational, student personnel, and business divisions. It has no public relations vice president.

Minnesota illustrates a partial plan: it has an educational and a business vice president but no SPW vice president and no public relations vice president. The Dean of Students there, E.G. Williamson, reports to the president through the academic or instructional vice president. The time will surely come, however, when he will report directly to the president.

4. Student Personnel Functional Administration Within Its Own Division: Overall functional administration constitutes a plan for dividing the responsibilities resulting from the inevitability of the specialization caused by increased loads of work.

A person in academic work is primarily specialized as a teacher or researcher (and these must in my judgment eventually be separated), a business affairs worker, a student personnel worker, etc. Within the personnel field an individual may be an admissions officer, a dormitory counselor, a placement officer, etc. These secondary specialists break down further into tertiary specialists; and thus an admissions officer may concentrate on the admission of women, of graduate students, of engineers, etc.

I don't think that I need to take time to trace the evolution of SPW work to show its establishment as a primary specialty and then to identify the secondary and tertiary specialties. We have been discussing these specialties all through the course, and no more seems necessary here than the following generalizations:

4.1 SPW has come generally to be recognized as a major division of academic functional administration.

4.2 SPW as a secondary academic specialty has developed its tertiary and even its further specialties.

I think that we can also generalize further and say that:

4.3 Functional administration in colleges and universities is here to stay.

4.4 SPW will continue to be an increasingly important division of academic functional administration.

4.5 Functionalization of SPW services will of necessity continue.

5. Some Problems of SPW Functional Administration: No machine and no plan of organization works perfectly. Every machine has its coefficient of efficiency and therefore its coefficient of inefficiency. This is just another way of saying that perfection is unattainable and that a social institution is an equilibrium of forces all of which are somewhat held in restraint. In any event, the functional administration of SPW has brought to the fore a number of problems, a number of fraction points including:

5.1 The lower status of the dean of students, that is, of the chief SPW administrator. Illustrated at Minnesota where the dean of students does not have vice presidential rank -- although he does at Ohio State.

5.2 The feeling of many women that women are neglected and underprivileged under the functional plan. They believe that the Dean of Women should report directly to the president and thus be able to "represent the viewpoint of women" on all issues.

5.3 The difficulty of bringing in athletics into the personnel field. It has so much power that it can't now be contained there. Yet by definition it clearly belongs in SPW.

5.4 The difficulty of finding good overall personnel administrators.

Topic Twenty-One

Student Personnel Law

Introduction: Student personnel law constitutes part of the necessary knowledge of every well-trained personnel administrator. Other personnel workers should have a general awareness of the importance of law in their profession plus knowledge of the legal statutes and decisions bearing upon their specific duties.

We badly need a good book on student personnel law, and I hope that someone will soon undertake the task of producing it. Meanwhile, M.M. Chambers of the American Council on Education includes section on student personnel law in the two volumes of The Colleges and the Courts, the first produced in 1936 with E.C. Elliott as the senior author, the second in 1946 entirely by Chambers. Chambers also has a piece on student personnel law in The Encyclopedia of Educational Research, pp. 206-08. Arlyn Marks also has a piece in that encyclopedia on military training, pp. 731-32. Everything in this lecture comes from these sources, but others must exist of which I am not informed.

I make one contribution to the terminology, but as yet it has no status with others. I employed it in the last lecture, Item 1.2 where I classified colleges and universities in terms of control as of three types:

1. Territorial (Civic): Generally called public institution.
2. Alodial: Privately controlled and therefore independent of both the state and of organized religion and other self-interest groups.
3. Sectarian (Fauterial): Includes all types of self-interest institutions including those controlled by churches and business corporations, and those corporations engaged in education for pecuniary profit.

I have proposed this new terminology (at least new in part) in order to get away from the dichotomy of public-private. All educational institutions are public: all must be chartered by the state, and all serve the public. Thus no institution is private in the usual sense of that word. This being true, a new terminology seems to be necessary for clarity of thought and discussion.

This lecture is organized under seven or eight topics, most of which are the same as those used by Chambers. The first, however, is not included as a Chamber's caption. It seems to me so important that I abstract it from his writings and give it first place:

1. The In Loco Parentis Responsibilities of Colleges and Universities: This Latin phrase, in loco parentis, meaning in place of the parent, involves the responsibility of the college or university for the students in its charge. I have not been able to discover whether it applies only to minor students. In any event, here are some of the decisions bearing upon the in loco parentis rule of law:

1.1 Control Over the Places Where Students Live: "A private school may suspend a student who refuses to reside in a place approved by it." (College and the Courts, p. 28.1) Again, is there a difference here between minor students and others?

1.2 Control Over Places Where Students Eat: Some 35 years ago Berea College in Kentucky ruled that students could not eat at certain public restaurants in the town. One of the restauranteurs sued the college, but the court upheld Berea. (Colleges and the Courts, 1936, p. 23)

1.3 Control Over the Social Activities of Students: A girl attending a state normal school in Missouri but living at home was expelled for attending a public amusement place banned by the school authorities -- or prohibited to them without written permission from the school authorities. The courts upheld the girl and her family, ruling that a student stands in loco parentis only when not under the parental eye. (Ibid., pp. 25-26)

> Chambers here writes this significant statement which needs further elucidation: "Parents living at a distance may either place their children under the control of other persons or leave them free to control themselves, and the choice is for the discretion of the parent. (Ibid., p. 26.2)

But Chambers does not say whether or not this applies to minor students as well as to students who have reached their majority. I take it that it applies to minors and that students in their majority are completely free agents.

It seems to me that a comprehensive discussion of the in loco parentis rule of law should be prepared and disseminated among personnel people. Incidentally, I've the recollection of seeing the term in loco parentis related to what is sometimes called "custodial responsibility." This has a penal sound, but I'd like to know whether it includes the same, more, or less than in loco parentis. This and comparable questions need to be handled in the comprehensive discussion that I'm proposing.

2. Admissions: A good deal of law here. Some of the more important elements of it seem to be:

2.1 Absolute Right to Admission: No student has an absolute right to admissions. (EER, 206.10)

2.2 Published Qualifications Binding: Published statements of qualifications for admissions are binding on both public and private institutions. (Ibid., 206.10f)

2.3 Rights of the Fautorial and Alodial Types of Institutions: "Institutions under private control generally have full discretion to choose whom they will admit and whom they will reject. Occasional exceptions are found where provisions in the charter forbid discrimination on specified grounds, such as those of race or sex." (Ibid., 207.1)

2.4 Minority Groups:

2.41 General: At least one state forbids discrimination on the basis of race, color, or religion -- New York, which in 1935 refused tax exemption to any institution which denies "the use of its facilities to any person otherwise qualified, by reason of his race, color, or religion." (Colleges and the Courts, 1946, p. 5.2)

2.42 Race:

2.421 Legally Imposed Segregation: Required by a number of southern states. One is Kentucky which 40 years ago enacted its legislation. Berea College in that state had been admitting both whites and Negroes and sued to test the constitutionality of the enactment. Berea lost its case, and the decision of the Kentucky Court of Appeals was affirmed by the Supreme Court of the United States. (Colleges and the Courts, 1936, p. 21.35)

2.422 Comparable Facilities Required for Negroes: The famous Gaines Case in Missouri came up in 1938. A Negro student named Gaines demanded admission to the Law School of the University of Missouri and sued for admission when rejected. The Supreme Court of the United States ruled that states with segregation laws must furnish within their borders facilities for professional and graduate education for qualified colored residents substantially equal to the facilities provided for white citizens.

A similar case came up two years ago in Texas with the same result.

Negroes in general are fighting the plan established by the Gaines case. They are opposed to segregation, and this constitutes one of the most important fronts in the fight for racial equality. Three plans are now in competition over the country -- as I see the situation:

2.4221 Segregation in institutions offering "substantially equal facilities" for Negroes.

2.4222 Segregation in regional institutions, that is, institutions serving several states. The National Association for the Advancement of Colored People is fighting this regional development since it unequivocably fights segregation of any sort.

2.4223 Equality of Opportunity in the Same Institutions: This is what most Negro leaders want. In general northern institutions provide it at least in principle, and recently the University of Arkansas admitted a Negro student into either its law school or its medical school.

2.43 Religion: I know of no decisions here, but the New York Legislation of 1935 (see Item 2.41 above) refuses tax exemption to institutions setting up religious qualifications. My impression is that more recently passed legislation goes even further with penalties.

3. Fees:

3.1 Territorial (Civic) Institutions: Fees controlled by legislation, many states forbidding the charging of any fees for tuition. But practically all state institutions get around this by charging fees for services other than tuition, that is, for services other than instruction. Thus the University of Wisconsin at one point charged for the heating and lighting of certain institutional rooms, and the courts upheld its right to do this. Most states handle this problem by charging students what is usually called "incidental charges."

But here as elsewhere legislation and court decisions vary from state to state, from municipality to municipality. Thus the courts did not sustain the University of Kansas when it charged a fee for the use of the books in the library. Nor did the State of Oklahoma approve the regulation of Oklahoma A & M when it required students to pay fees for the support of the athletic association, the YMCA, etc. (EER, 207.35)

A distinction must be drawn here between in-state students and out-of-state students (usually called non-resident students):

3.11 In-State Students: Discussed above.

3.12 Out-of-State Students: Many institutions charge higher fees for these students, but some states have reciprocity here.

3.2 Alodial and Fautorial Institutions: Private institutions are free to do as they will on fees, that is, charge what they think they can collect. See 1936 volume, p. 20.5.

4. Scholarships and Loan Funds: In both the 1936 and 1946 volumes, Chambers devoted a chapter to this topic, but most of the discussion is not relevant to SPW. In any event, I've not organized his data and thus bypass the topic for the time being.

5. Contractual Relationship of Student and Institution: A New York court in 1891 included this statement in a decision, and I quote it here because it defines the contractual relationship:

> "When a student matriculates . . . it is a contract between the college and himself that, if he complies with the terms therein prescribed, he shall have the degree which is the end to be obtained." 1936 volume, p. 39.1.

5.1 Nature of the Contract: "Once matriculated, a student has a contractual relationship with the institution which he may terminate at will but which binds the institution to afford him reasonable opportunity to complete the course of study as described at the time of his enrollment." EER, 207.7.

5.2 Suspensions and Expulsions: Much law here which may be classified and discussed as follows:

5.21 General Situation: "In general, the governing board of a college or university has a broad sphere of discretion as to what rules are reasonable and necessary to the discipline and tone of the institution, and the courts are reluctant to interfere in this sphere except in the presence of evidence of bad faith, caprice, or malice." EER, 207.89.

Thus many institutions, public and private (although Chambers mentions only private institutions at EER 208.2) publish in their catalogues a reservation of the right "To terminate the attendance of any student at any time when the best interests of the institution are deemed to require it." As a case in point, the courts upheld this right of the authorities of Syracuse University which had dismissed a girl for conduct it did not approve. 1936 volume, pp. 32-33.

Involved law about notice and hearings before expulsion. See 1936 volume, p. 30.1.

See general statement from a court decision. 1936 volume, p. 29.3.

5.22 Scholarship: Two problems here: dismissal and readmission:

5.221 Dismissal: Generally agreed that institutions have the right to dismiss students for inadequate performance. Chambers cites the Ohio decision involving Miami University. See EER, 207.10f.

5.222 Readmission: The right to readmission after failure apparently involved. Decisions both ways. See 1936 volume, pp. 34-36.

5.23 Social Discipline: The right to suspend or expel students for infraction of discipline is unquestioned. Thus a Maryland court has ruled:

> "The maintenance of discipline and upkeep of the necessary tone and standards of behavior in a body of students . . . is committed to its faculty and officers, and not to the courts, which will not interfere unless the college officials have exceeded their discretion or acted arbitrarily." 1936:29.3.

Yet "the general rule is that the offending student must be granted a reasonable opportunity to hear the charges against him and to explain his conduct but that he is not necessarily entitled to a hearing as formal as the usual proceedings in a court of law, including the right to confront and cross-examine all adverse witnesses." EER, 208.1.

See the case of the two students in the Medical College of the University of Tennessee who were expelled for selling final examination questions to other students. The United States Supreme Court upheld their dismissal by refusing to review the decision of the state courts. 1946:8-9.

5.24 Military Training: No longer a freighted question because of the international situation, but in the 1920s and 1930s much agitation and legal action. Thus we review the situation:

5.241 Basic Law: Three acts: 1) The Morrill Land-Grant College Act of 1862 which required that military science and tactics be offered at the institutions established by the Act, 2) the National Defense Act of 1916 reorganizing and standardizing the ROTC, and 3) the National Defense Act of 1920 carrying the Act of 1916 further. See EER 731-32. Probably new legislation has been passed recently because of the obvious development of the ROTC and NROTC, but I have not reviewed the situation.

5.242 Legal Decisions: The prime question here has been whether or not an institution must both offer military training and compel students to take it. The situation here is now clear as the result of cases from two or three Middle-Western states: "The Attorney General of the United States and the United States Supreme Court have ruled that the question of compulsory training in these (land-grant) colleges is a local one and is to be decided by the state or the institution." EER, 732.5.

Thus three states have made military training optional for students: Wisconsin since 1924, Minnesota since 1934, and North Dakota since 1938. Ibid.

But these institutions under the Morrill Act must offer military training.

6. Residence of Students:

6.1 Legal Rights in a College-Owned Residence: "A resident of a college dormitory has not the legal rights of a tenant, nor even those of an ordinary lodger; he impliedly agrees to conform to all reasonable rules of the institution, and may be summarily evicted for a serious infraction thereof." 1936 volume, 18.3. In short, students may be evicted from a college-owned residence for misbehavior. Is this the answer to the Encina (a Stanford dormitory) problem?

6.2 Rights of Institutions: This is the topic mentioned in the introductory remarks of this section. I see that Chambers does mention and discuss the question as to whether an institution may require students to live where it determines. He cites a case at the Colorado State College of Education which required students to live in dormitories and to pay the prescribed rental. 1936 volume, p. 20.23.

6.3 Racial Questions: Can students be segregated in the same building, and many institutions put students of different races in the same rooms? I can find no discussion of the first of these questions, but an Ohio State case of 1933 bears upon the second.

A Negro girl in home economics entered the home economics practise house as part of her training, but the authorities put her in a separate room because no other Negro student was present. She sued for the right to live with another student, that is, with a white student. The court denied her petition, ruling that "the quarters offered here were in all respects substantially equal to those of the other students." 1936 volume, p. 19.24.

7. Student Dealings With Tradesmen: Can a student deal with a local tradesman against the prohibition of the institution? The answer seems to be in the negative. Here the principle of in loco parentis appears to apply. See 1936 volume, pp. 22-23.

8. Tort Liability: A tort is defined as a civil wrong independent of contract. Injuries to students fall under this classification. Chambers has a chapter on this topic in each of his volumes, but I have not been able to abstract them as yet. I'll have to hold that enterprise until the next time I teach this course.

9. Counseling and Privileged Communication: I can find nothing in Chambers on this topic. It becomes increasingly important and needs attention.

Indeed, all the applications of the law to the counseling situation need to be organized and disseminated.

10. Conclusion: Two insistent needs in this field:

10.1 A definitive book written especially for student personnel people.

10.2 Continuous research, that is, keeping up with new legislation and decisions. Chambers attempts this and does beautifully, but he does not give the special attention to SPW that SPW workers need.

Topic Twenty-Two

Student Personnel Research

Introduction: In his A History of Science, Sir William C. Dampier writes a sentence which, in my judgment, should be on the walls of many rooms in universities -- includes the office of the chief student personnel people:

> "If agricultural land be left uncultivated, in a few years the jungle returns, and signs are not lacking that a similar danger is always lying in wait for the fields of thought, which, by the labour of three hundred years, have been cleared and brought to cultivation by men of science."
> 1946 edition, pp. 89-90.

SP research has no such long history of cultivation and, indeed, can hardly be said to be more than 35 years old. In this lecture I shall rapidly trace the history of SP research, discuss its current status, and comment briefly about its future.

1. The History of SP Research: Dampier writes of 300 years of research, and he meant the research begun during the first quarter of the 17th Century by Galileo, Huggens, and their associates in astronomical and physical investigations. Other kinds of research came in much later, and not until the early 19th Century did biological inquiry attain status. Psychological research came in even later, born of the wedding of biology and physics. Sociology got under way about the same time under the direction of Comte, but it has grown much less vigorously.

   SP research had its inception in psychological investigation. Cattell, an important figure in the United States with his physiological measurement, but the real push came from France and the work of Benet. Indeed, physiological measurement proved of considerably lesser importance. SP research took its real rise from investigations of intelligence and particularly from attempts to measure intelligence.

   When the United States entered the First World War in 1917, American psychologists had had enough experience to be able to offer the Army and the Navy a few instruments of measuring intellectual and associated aptitudes. Thus Walter Dill Scott, Walter V. Bingham, and a hundred other psychologists joined the military intelligence testing enterprise and used soldiers in particular for the subjects of their studies. Everyone knows of their development of the Army Alpha, the Army Beta, and other such instruments.

   The First World War ended, these psychologists continued their investigations both in industry and in education, and in both areas it has been going on ever since. Thus SP research may be said to have begun seriously about 1917, the year of our entry in the First World War.

   After this same time sociological investigations got under way. The first important book here seems to me to be F.S. Chapin's 1911 doctoral dissertation at Columbia entitled *Education and the Mores*. But Chapin did not seriously follow through on his study. He turned largely to other interests and, in fact, sociological investigations in SPW have never had the driving interest of psychological studies.

In summary, SP research has developed since 1917 and have been largely psychological. Sociological SP research has hardly been begun.

2. *The Nature of SP Research*: SPW is an applied field, and thus it rests on the sciences of psychology and sociology. Like education, it has no independent existence: it depends upon more fundamental scientific disciplines. This seems to me to be such an important point that I want to try to clarify it further.

A scientist is primarily interested in *understanding*, not in applying. Thus the phrase "knowledge for the sake of knowledge" has wide vogue, but it really means "knowledge for the sake of understanding." As thinkers since Socrates' time have again and again insisted, man has an insatiable appetite for knowledge, but the appetite grows from a consuming curiosity about the nature of the world and of man. In short, man is curious about the arrangements and substances of nature and of man, and he seeks knowledge primarily, not to use it in improving life, but in understanding life.

But this curiosity about the nature of things does not dominate all men. Others have an equally strong urge to use the facts and generalizations and tools developed by the "pure scientists" for practical applied purposes. These two interests often clash, and the clash comes primarily at the point of organizing knowledge. How should knowledge be organized? The man interested in knowledge per se organizes it for the purposes of evolving theories that explain knowledge itself. The man interested in using knowledge organizes it for practical uses. The clash comes over these two kinds of organization of knowledge.

James Harvey Robinson has discussed brilliantly the warfare between the two groups in his book, *The Humanization of Knowledge*. Therein he points out that the organization of knowledge made by pure scientists has little utility for men in applied fields. In particular he points out that the organization of knowledge for the purposes of pure science has limited utility for the purposes of general education. Robinson's stimulating book put me to work seeking out other thinkers who had similarly distinguished among his three kinds of organized knowledge -- pure, applied, and organized for general education. In due course I found that Robinson's tripartite classification had been discussed by Aristotle and John Dewey as well as by a number of others including Francis Bacon and the French encyclopedist Diderot.

These men, like Robinson, described three methods of organizing knowledge; but Bacon excepted in his *The New Atlantis*, did not name them. Bacon's archaic terminology, however, couldn't be used, and so I made bold to launch three names for the triad -- logocentric, practicentric, and democentric. Observe that all have the same centric stem, meaning, as did its Greek antecedent (*kentron*), "centered in." Thus *logocentric* means centered in knowledge itself, *logos* being one of the six or seven Greek nouns for knowledge, and *logencentrists* those who quest for a fuller understanding of some characteristic or characteristics of man or of the universe. Practicentric and practicentrist have been coined by joining centric with praxis, the Greek word for practice. The terms denote the application and the appliers of knowledge. Democentric and democentrist combine the centric stem and demos, which to the Greeks meant people in general.

Other than resting upon the work of renowned philosophers, the terms seem to me to have the following points in their favor:

1. They take into account the three fundamental methods of organizing and using knowledge.

2. They can be applied in all disciplines.

3. They are non-invidious.

4. Being correlative, each suggests the other two.

5. They help in differentiating among the kinds of teaching and research undertaken by individual faculty members.

For ease of reference, incidentally, I call the formulation the Centric Triad. I believe that it has utility both in science and education. Be that as it may, I apply it herewith -- admittedly quite inadequately -- to student personnel research.

3. Major Logocentric Fields Behind SP Research: Biology is of course, important, but it comes to SPW primarily through psychology. Thus it seems to me that SP research rests primarily on two disciplines: psychology and sociology.

3.1 Psychology: SPW clearly has developed from psychological research. Moreover, most SPW people get most of their basic training from psychologists. That they need such psychological training everyone will agree.

3.2 Sociology: SPW is not only concerned with individuals but also with groups of individuals, and thus SPW depends also on sociology. Unfortunately, however, SPW has not yet reached very deep or very often into sociology, and few SPW people have much sociological training. This seems to me most unfortunate. The time must soon come when SPW people are as thoroughly trained sociologically as they are now psychologically. The present lopsidedness must end.

4. Chief Research Problems of SPW: Everyone in the field has his own list. This is mine:

4.1 Appraisal Methods and Instruments: I mean individual appraisal. All good SPW spokes out from the hub of student appraisal, and thus appraisal must be the concern of a large proportion of SP research. We need finer and finer instruments of intelligence testing, of determining emotional stability, of measuring achievement, etc. The grant study needs careful appraisal here for applicable methods.

4.2 Counseling Techniques and Principles: Much discussion these days about the merits of directive versus non-directive counseling. It seems to me that the problem has pretty much been resolved and that now we can move on to attack other problems in counseling. For example, we need to know a good deal more about the nature of rapport and how to achieve it between counselor and client. We also need to know a good deal more about timing counseling contacts both as to length, frequency, etc. We also need to develop instruments for checking the results of counseling. But there are many other problems here too.

4.3 Students in Groups: As observed frequently in this course, sociological research has largely been neglected by SP people. This seems to me to be most unfortunate. The college and university campus is a veritable sociological gold mine; ard since the sociologists have neglected it, SP research people should move in and take it over. Among the problems to be investigated are:

4.31 The Mores of Student Groups: Cite my traditions studies of the 1930s, etc.

4.32 The Nature of Discipline: Williamson doing some work here, and we need more.

4.33 Demographic Studies: The movements of students over the decades including the gross population statistics plus vital statistics. Practically nothing has been done here.

These are just samples of major fields needing investigation.

5. Who Should Do SP Research?: At present, SP research is done largely by two groups of people: psychologists and SP people on full-time operational jobs. Neither groups gives full-time attention to SP research, and I have long felt that SPW needs of national research agency to do two things: 1) to conduct investigations on its own, and 2) to serve as a clearing house for all research done anywhere. We need such a central, national agency very badly. Until we get full-time SP research people, we shall not progress the way we should. To return to Dampier's statement at the beginning of the lecture: we shall never cultivate our field properly until we assign the job of research cultivation to specialists who eat, sleep, and dream SP research.

Student Personnel Services in American Higher Education

Part Seven

Criticisms and Prognosis

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Topic Twenty-Three

Criticisms of SPW

Introduction: I never think of the topic of criticism without recalling the brilliant statement of Le Baron Russell Briggs, Dean of Harvard College beginning in 1890 and therefore the first dean of students in American higher educational history. He wrote in 1900:

> "We all live in glass houses; yet we must accept the duty and take the risk of throwing stones."

In short, criticism is a moral duty of those who have the courage to be critical but who, at the same time, recognize that they too can be and should be criticized.

Two other statements also seem to me to need quoting:

> "Progress comes by contradiction." Sir Gilbert Murray, meaning that criticism is good and makes for progress.
>
> "It is said that an entrenched priesthood will never reform itself." The Truman Commission, 1:91.2. In short, SP people must not only criticize themselves but also give serious thought to the criticisms of others.

Against the backdrop of these statements I shall discuss the criticisms of non-personnel people and also of SP people themselves. The first of these topics I'll divide into two parts: those from faculty members and those from administrators in other fields than SPW.

1. Criticisms From Faculty Members: College and university professors are perhaps the most critical groups of people in modern society. It's their business to be critical! Knowledge grows through criticism, and professors are devoted to the growth of knowledge. This professional responsibility for criticism often influences their daily associations outside their specialties, and many a victim of the critical professor finds them difficult people to live and work with. Poo Bah in *The Mikado* remarked: "I was born sneering?," and often personnel people think that many professors were born sneering about personnel work.

   And yet SP people must deal constantly with professors and must therefore know about their criticisms of SPW. The chief ones seem to be these:

   1.1 Spoonfeeding: A frequent accusation. SP people are alleged to spoonfeed students and thus to interfere with their proper development into self-responsibility.

   The allegation grows from the professor's historic commitment to intellectualism and hence to impersonalism. But explaining the criticism does not answer the critics. The answer in my judgment comes best from indirection rather than from direct defense. In short, SP people do not defend themselves directly against this charge. Instead, they demonstrate their vital importance to professors and thus erase the criticism. To the intellectualist and impersonalist, no answer will be satisfying. Not to be cruelly hardboiled is to spoonfeed, and what can one say in response to a sneer?

1.2 SPW Chiefly Serves the Weak Students: Professors throw this criticism frequently, and to me there seems to be much justification for their barbs here. SPW does seem to me to give most of its attention to the weaker students.

The cause of this, of course, is mass education which has brought myriads of students to higher educational institutions who formerly would not have been admitted. These weaker students must be served too, and SP people naturally serve them. How can they do otherwise?

The answer to this criticism does not, as I see it, lie with SP people at all. It lies with the policy-making groups in higher educational institutions. Their problem is this: who should be admitted? SP people do not answer this question. Others furnish the answer and then require the SP people to service those accepted.

The problem here is a result of mass education and of our inability thus far to handle the problem of mass education. But we are beginning to find answers! New York and California have abandoned the multi-functioned university formula and are now in the process of establishing levels of higher education: three in each state. These plans set up three levels of higher education, each serving different levels of intellectual ability and occupational motivation. This seems to me to be highly desirable.

Under the multi-functioned university pattern, the university finances by the state must admit every graduate of an accredited high school; and the faculty responded to this by heavy flunking-out of those not qualified to do their work. But the multi-functioned university, no matter how widespread in its offerings, has not been able to offer the semi-professional courses that many students need and would succeed in. Thus New York and California are now organizing their three levels to provide for these varieties of students, many of whom would flunk out of the typical university.

But only New York and California do this. In my judgment other states will follow. This will happen despite the protests of the Jacksonian Democrats who above all stress equality. Yet they ignore the factor of individual differences and the equally important element of democracy which emphasizes differentiation and therefore differential education. But the Jacksonians are now being slowly defeated by the Jeffersonians, and to me this seems desirable.

The battle will go on for a couple of decades. Meanwhile SP people will continue to be criticized by professors for serving weaklings chiefly. Student personnel people should respond by pointing to the cause of their activities and also to the remedies being experimented with in New York and California.

1.3 SP People Are Not Broadly Educated: Specialists judge others in terms, it seems to me, of two chief considerations: 1) their understanding of the specialists specialty and 2) their general education and breadth of interests and information. Thus professors, the most specialized of all people, judge SP people on these two counts, and frequently SP people do not come off very well.

If SP people are to be popular with professors, they must not only do excellent work in their field, but they must also be able to exchange ideas with professors -- on terms of equals. This requires, as I see it, broad general education!! Unhappily as I know SP people, too few of them have the breadth of education that would make them so much more acceptable to professors.

2. Criticisms From Administrators: A good deal of the criticism of SP people from administrators in other fields and from central administrators seems to me to be inevitable. SPW as an operational terrain has developed rapidly in the past 15 years, and naturally SP people are on the make to accelerate this growth -- or at least to establish it. This interferes with the ambitions of other areas of higher educational activity, and clashes inevitably result.

What to do about this? I know of nothing except skill in negotiation plus patience. And both, as I see it, depend upon breadth of general education plus a sense of humor, an ability in humorous give and take.

3. Criticisms From Within SPW: All the critics are not on the outside. Some throw stones from inside the edifice of SPW. This is desirable. Well, the stone-throwing metaphor isn't appropriate; but critics within the family surely have their high value. Here are some of the most important of their criticisms:

3.1 Inadequate Training: SP people in general are inadequately trained. Such training has at least three parts:

3.11 Broad General Education: Discussed above, and highly important.

3.12 Training in the Foundational Fields of SPW: The two foundational fields of SPW are psychology and sociology. We do well in the former and badly in the latter. Training programs must be developed which will prepare people in both foundational fields.

3.13 Specifical SPW Knowledge: We need not only training in foundational field but also in the application of such foundational knowledge to specific personnel situations. At present we suffer here in two directions at least:

3.131 Too Much Knowabout, Too Little Knowhow: All formal education at fault here. Colleges and universities teach a good deal about a subject and too little in the how of a subject. This criticism applies pertinently to SPW training. We need more practicums!!!!

3.132 Too Much Immediacy: Personnel people, along with most other educationists, suffer from the current mania for immediacy, and thus they have real roots. But SP reaches far back into the past; and SP people ought to be well informed about the depth and strengths of these roots. Such knowledge would give them great status and self-confidence -- and they need other characteristics badly.

3.2 The Philosophy of Adjustmentism: Too many SP people seem to me to be adjustmentalists, and this strikes me as most unfortunate. SP does not operate to turn out "adjusted people" as many alleged. Rather it exists to help people to develop their capacities to the maximum in this situation in life. As I see it, adjustmentism is but another kind of standpattism: it accepts the present state of affairs and attempts to help students "adjust to them." This seems to me to be most undesirable!

3.3 Conflict Between Mass Education and Differential Education: I've discussed this a bit above in Item 1.2. But it can be attacked from another angle, to wit, the need of SP people putting more emphasis on individual differences and following through to put more emphasis on differential education.

The masses are in higher education to stay. This is good for the nation provided we do not allow the gifted student to be underpriviliged. And in my judgment he is underprivileged today. Cite the O'Brien study here at Stanford, etc.

What to do about this? STRESS DIFFERENTIAL EDUCATION AND WORK FOR THE SPREAD OF THE INSTITUTIONAL DIFFERENTIAL PROGRAMS OF NEW YORK AND CALIFORNIA.

3.4 Overorganization: In my 1937 article entitled "A Preface to the Principles of Student Counseling" I remarked that SPW has itself become so specialized and highly organized that the student is sliced into bits and that they are never put together again. I believe the criticism to be still applicable, and I believe that more efforts should be made to end this unhappy situation.

But what? My answer is the development of the function of coordinating counseling as described in the lecture on counseling.

Whatever the answer, clearly SP people must work vigorously to counteract the tendencies toward overorganization.

4. Conclusions: I have described only some of the most insistent of the criticisms of SPW. Patently there are many others. Yet these are perhaps enough to indicate the abundance of them.

And it's good to have them -- and better still to know them. Progress comes from criticism provided one does something about them. When pessimism prevails, people grow. And we need growth in SPW.

Topic Twenty-Four

The Future of SP Work

Introduction: We have come to the end of the course, and we ought to have a look into the future. Personally, I believe that if one looks back far enough into the past and appraises the present adequately, he can make reasonably accurate predictions about the future. With Winston Churchill I believe that "The farther you look back, the farther you can look forward." We have done a lot of looking back in this course, and so we must now look forward.

Here are some of the developments that I see in the future.

1. Real Training Programs: In my judgment we have no adequately SP training programs today. In time some university will see the wisdom of establishing an institute for the training of personnel people. The sooner the better. Here are some of the characteristics it should have and may have after its establishment and development:

    1.1 Breadth of General Education Required For Admission: I've discussed this in Item 1.3 of the last lecture.

    1.2 Sociological As Well As Psychological Training: I've discussed this at several points in the last two lectures.

    1.3 Praticums: Discussed in Item 3.131 of the last lecture.

    1.4 All Varieties of Personnel Work: SP people ought to be trained side-by-side with personnel people working in industry, in government and in other areas. They have much in common and could well be trained in common. Each group would take its specialized area courses, but all would take basic studies together.

2. Better Research: Eventually we shall have specialized SP research people, that is, men and women giving full-time to SP research. And this may lead to the development of a national SP research agency with two functions: 1) research proper, and 2) dissemination of the results of all research done in the field.

3. Acceptance of the Field As a Major Division of Higher Educational Activity: A few institutions now recognize SP as equal in importance to instruction, research, business management, etc. This recognition will spread, and in time the chief SP officer will have rank equivalent to that of the vice presidents now appearing in instruction, business management, public relations.

    In brief, SPW will come more and more to be recognized as one of the four or five major divisions of functional administration in higher education. The signs on the horizon are clear.

4. Wider Acceptance of SPW by Professors: This happens prominently now. I've been in the field -- or watching the field directly -- for 22 years, and I see a vast improvement in faculty attitudes toward SPW. One of the chief reasons here is that professors more and more recognize that SP people do jobs which relieve them as work that they were formerly expected to perform. Now with the hordes of students on our campuses, the professor even welcomes SP people to handle the problems thus created.

   Moreover, as time goes on, SP people will develop more associations with professors around common interests. Broader educational qualifications will help here substantially.

5. Recognition of SPW as a Great Agency For Personalizing a Highly Mechanized World: The world gets more and more complex, more and more impersonal. People feel this intensely, and they reach for personnel workers to help them. Psychiatry and psychology develop for the same reason. We shall get more complex rather than less, and thus more and more SPW will be recognized as a vital enterprise in the personalization of life.

6. But the Major Development of SPW Depends on Other Issues: SPW will inevitably develop and work into improved status, but the big issues bearing upon the future of SPW lie elsewhere -- in such problems as these:

   6.1 The Resolution of the Problem of Giantism: Can we continue to operate such huge institutions? This problem must be met and resolved, and upon the outcome the future of SPW in part rests.

   6.2 The Resolution of the Conflicts Growing From Mass Education: Shall differential education develop as the Jeffersonians want, or will the Jacksonians prevail? I believe that the Jeffersonians will triumph, but in any case SPW will be profoundly influenced.

   6.3 The Improvement of College Instruction: Clearly closely related to SPW. My notion is that nothing of importance will happen here until we resolve the problem of the conflict of research and teaching. And, further, we shall not resolve the problem of research and teaching until we discover how to finance research without depending, as we do now, upon the fees of undergraduate students. They pay the research piper and for their money they get the worse instruction given in American education. On this issue the fate of SPW also hangs.

   6.4 The Political Situation in General: The Nazis employed personnel techniques, and the Russians certainly do, too. What they did and do rested and rests upon their controlling political philosophy. So is it with us too, and thus the future of SPW depends primarily upon the total socioeconomic-political future of the Nation. This fact makes it imperative that SP people be not only good specialists but also good citizens and good, well-educated men and women.